THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

DECEMBER 15, 1925

Problem: Find Four Walls
Compulsory Military Training
The Strike Against Strikes
A Homemade Health Center
The State and the Schools
Housing in the City of Homes
Getting Ready for School
Osmosis: Object of Social Work

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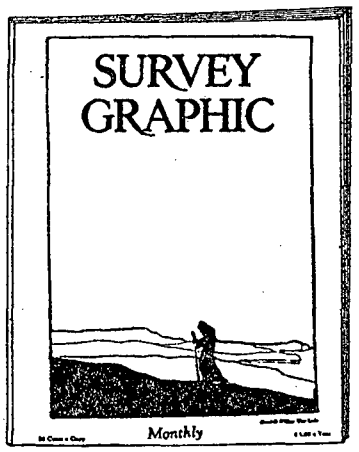

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The Analytic Index to this number will be found on page 393.

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THE SURVEY

Midmonthly Number

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The Gist of It

HOUSING has become a colorless technical term to cover one of the most intimate of personal and social problems. American cities, for the most part, blunder along in dealing with the problem, trusting to the almighty dollar to work it out in the end. Here a bit of self-examination from New York and Philadelphia throws light on opportunities for decent living by wage-earners in the small income groups in those two cities. Geddes Smith reports some of the testimony offered and some of the trends revealed by the hearings before the New York State Commission of Housing and Regional Planning, which has been inquiring into the justification for a possible continuance of the rent laws (p. 337). I. M. Rubinow, who has often shared with The Survey the fruits of the researches of the Jewish Welfare Society of Philadelphia, which he directs, puts his finger on a Philadelphia housing fallacy and takes an interesting and controversial position as to its possible solution. (p. 355). Space limitations made it necessary to omit a good deal of Mr. Rubinow's supporting evidence: he will be glad to correspond further with interested inquirers.

DO we want compulsory military training in American schools and colleges? We are getting it, to an astonishing extent. Winthrop D. Lane, formerly of the Survey staff, has canvassed the situation for a Committee on Militarism in Education, and a group of educators, publicists and liberals have united in calling for a halt. His brief is summarized on page 340. A rejoinder to Mr. Lane will be contributed to an early issue by John D. Kenderdine of the Survey staff, who was a member of the A. E. F. and is a captain, 305th Infantry Reserves.

PATRICK with his low I. Q. and passion for variety blunders through his days until he encounters discipline in an unforeseen form (p. 342). Adelaide Nichols has charmed Survey readers before (Survey Graphic, February 1925 and September 1925) with her stories of 1-A-10 and Tony the Janitor.

THE necessity for health examination of the pre-school child spurred the Mulberry Health Center in New York to establish a clinic for periodic examinations of such children and a nursing staff to follow up doctors' recommendations. Its accomplishments in six years are discussed on p. 350.

THE search for farm facts, especially in the light of the new Purnell Act, which provides for research in agricultural economics, rural sociology and home economics, is discussed on p. 358 by Carl C. Taylor, Dean of the Graduate School of North Carolina State College who sketches the opportunity of the state agricultural experiment stations, and by Caroline B. Sherman, Associate Economic Analyst, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, who tells of the work of the federal department before and since the passage of the Act.

WILLIAM E. HOCKING, professor of philosophy at Harvard University, author of Morale and Its Enemies, was one of the speakers at the Massachusetts Conference of Social Work who tried to get behind technical considerations to the real business of social work. His address forms the basis of an article on p. 361.

WHO is in social work? Who should be there? How to get them? were questions taken up by Earle Edward Eubank of the University of Cincinnati (p. 362) whose most recent contribution to The Survey July 15, 1925 dealt with labor education. Mr. Eubank reports the findings of the Committee on Recruiting and Education for Social Work in which he collaborated with J. E. Cutler, Edward Lynde, C. C. North, Helen Richardson, Walter M. West, and Alice Richard, which was appointed by the Ohio Welfare Conference.

THE successful efforts of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America to maintain constitutional government in the men's clothing industry seem in the mind of many "a crucial turning point in the evolution of industrial relations not only in the men's clothing industry but also, perhaps, in American industry in general." On p. 365 Mr. Bruère tells the story of the strike and the agreement which ended it.

COUNTY truants, like truants everywhere, throw light on the difficulties of the homes from which they come. A study of rural school attendance in Delaware is reported on p. 371.

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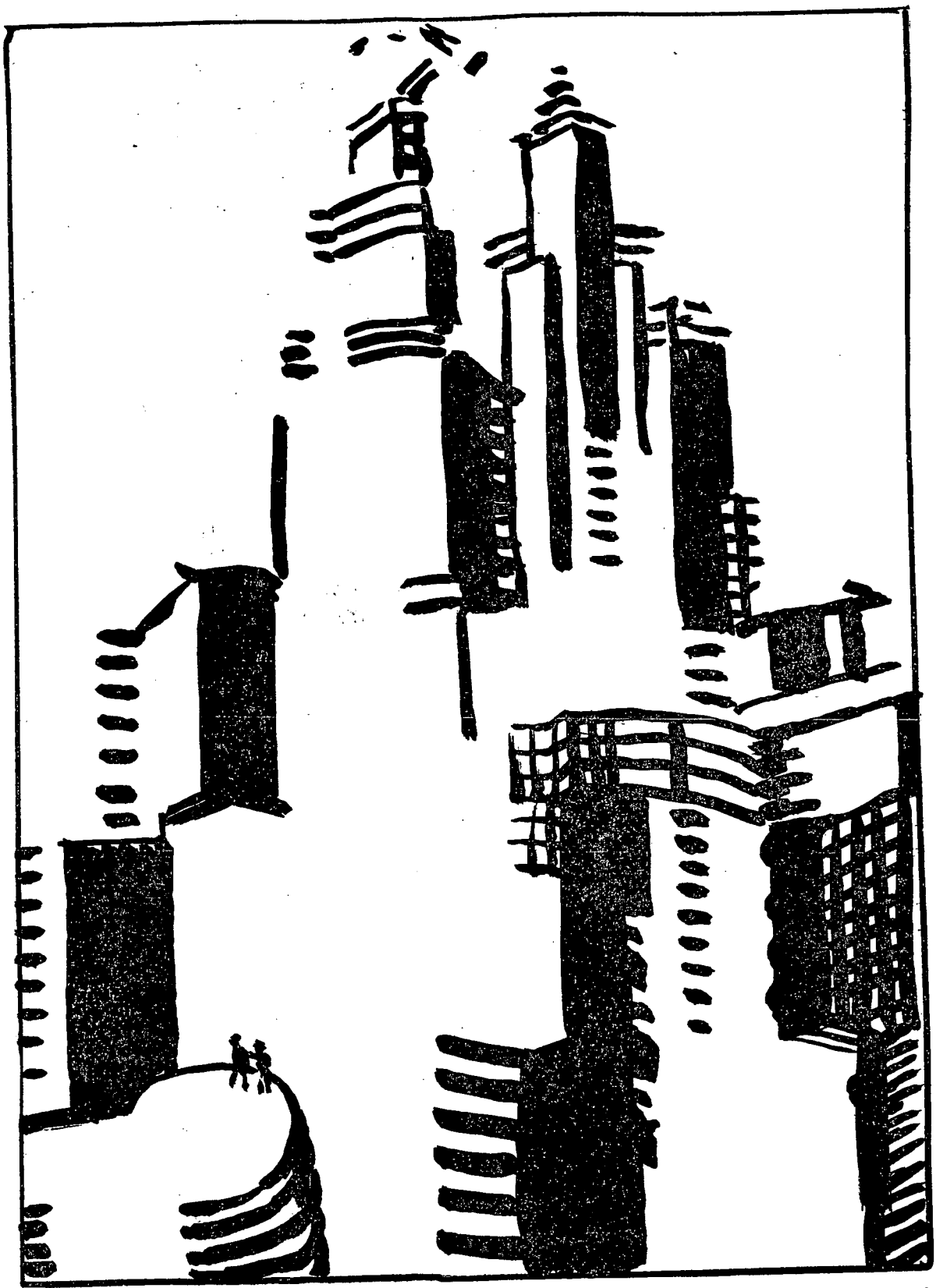

By Lewis Mumford

Yes, sir, that's the city of the future! Two-hundred-story skyscrapers! Air pumped in from the country. Every cubic foot of space used day and night. Mechanically perfect!

Magnificent! Will any one *live* there?

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

December 15
1925

Volume LV
No. 6

Problem: Find Four Walls

By Geddes Smith

HOW many wage-earners can live on an acre of land? How many wage-earners can *live* on an acre of land? And where will they find the acre?

Very likely, in the history of human curiosity, more prayerful hours have been spent in trying to find out how many angels can stand on the point of a needle than in trying honestly to answer such questions as these. The history of most towns and cities is the history of hasty, unplanned, unsocial exploitation of land. Acres on which living might conceivably be done, if they were used in such a way as to conserve it, becomes all too often merely mines where profits are dug, and such living as is achieved in the resulting dwelling space is a by-product, precarious and fleeting.

Two great cities, Philadelphia and New York, have recently been stirred, slightly as it may be, to a realization of their failure in this respect. On another page a Philadelphia social worker tells how overcrowding and miserable makeshifts lie behind the smug exteriors of those long boxrows of "workingmen's homes" that affront the eye in his city. New York has been hearing testimony, at a hearing on the proposed extension of the "rent laws," that reveals a social emergency in the quality of housing hardly less grave than the statistical deficiency which has gone by the name of the housing shortage. The experience of New York is important not so much because it houses a twenty-fifth of the entire population of the country as because the problem that New York is becoming faintly conscious of today is the problem that, in one form or another, every growing city will face tomorrow.

The New York State Commission of Housing and Regional Planning held in November public hearings to inquire whether an "emergency" still existed which would justify them in recommending to the governor and the legislature that the rent laws of 1920, framed originally to protect tenants from "unjust, unreasonable and oppressive agreements" into which landlords could then force them by reason of the stringency in housing accommodations, be continued after their expiration in February, 1926. The burden of testimony divided as would be expected: tenants and real estate operators deadlocked as to the existence of such a shortage as would justify the laws. But both in the hearings and in the publicity which they received in the press it was even more interesting to note the cropping-up of a fresh realization of the long-time factors in the housing problem. Rents and vacancies were the subject primarily considered, but witnesses kept commenting on the quality of housing and on the means by which low-cost dwelling space could be created. The signs indicate that the long period of mere drifting in the building of houses in New York may presently give way to a growing effort to plan for human ends.

From this point of view, the first fact that emerged from the hearings was that the poor—meaning not the indigent but the lowest-paid groups of wage-earners—are being drawn off Manhattan Island. This is true for several reasons. The notorious dumb-bell tenements of the lower East Side, for one thing, are less fit to live in every year of their overlong life. But so long as great masses of immigrants came to New York every year they were continually in use. As the earlier arrivals bettered their position and left the dark airshafts, newcomers filled their places. Now that there are so few newcomers, relatively, the places are beginning to be empty. As Henry Fleischmann, director of the Educational Alliance, testified:

> There is no scarcity of housing on the East Side. We have empty flats. . . . The people on the East Side have discovered that if they have to pay inordinately high rents they might just as well move away. The immigration laws have had their effect on the East Side. Formerly when an immigrant landed in New York—I speak of the Jewish immigrant particularly—he almost inevitably landed on the East Side, which is of course intensely congested. Today that immigrant is just as likely to land in any one of the four or five Jewish sections in New York city . . . but that does not change the economic status of the tenant.

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Rents are as high as they were; I have noted no decrease. . . . In Long Island City, a rapidly growing colony, made up to a considerable extent of former East Side residents, there is now growing the rent problem. For every vacant flat on the East Side, a problem is arising in some other section. . . .

In certain parts of Manhattan costly and even fashionable housing is preempting areas which had formerly housed, or might logically house, wage-workers. The vogue of the East River front in mid-city brings luxurious private gardens and the "model tenements" of the City and Suburban Homes Company within a few blocks of each other. The lower west side is showing similar tendencies on a less spectacular scale. In a city where traffic congestion has reached the point that now characterizes the New York streets it begins to be true that the rich man will insist on living near the financial and amusement centers, while the poor man is crowded to the fringe between the city and the well-to-do suburb. In general the inflated value of land in the heart of New York is making it progressively impossible to house wage-workers decently on Manhattan in buildings that pay commercial profits. When the needle trade unions made their plans for a cooperative housing project they went to the Bronx. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company and the City Housing Corporation went to cheap land in Queens. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., is experimenting with well-designed tenement blocks on the middle East Side, in Manhattan, but it is significant that a fair proportion of the apartments which he financed near the site of the Rockefeller Institute were promptly occupied by members of the Institute staff, to the exclusion of wage-workers.

But if it is hard to house workers decently on Manhattan Island, it is equally hard, in great numbers of cases, for wage-earners to live elsewhere. Mark A. McCloskey, a staff worker at Hudson Guild and a lifelong resident of the Chelsea district which the Guild serves, made that point:

I listened very interestedly [he said] to Mr. Untermyer's plan for houses in Long Island, but I wondered how it would be possible, even though a man can raise $1,000 for the first payment on the house in Long Island, what help it would give the truck-driver who has to harness up at six-thirty o'clock in the morning, or the milk driver who has to harness up and be on the job at two-thirty in the morning, or men in the transportation line of work in which our neighborhood is pre-eminently concerned. I am afraid it will be necessary for thousands and thousands of people to live in our district under those circumstances.

Such would be the case to some degree in any large city. Decentralization of housing, without decentralization of employment, is obviously an impossible solution for considerable sections of the wage-working public.

And what does the worker who does go to the outskirts of the city find there? Our concern here is not with the traditional middle-class apartment, but with marginal building and the innovations which suggest new trends. Much testimony at the hearings dealt with one of the largest cheap-house developments in New York: the wooden one-family houses which on 20 and 25-foot lots line miles on miles of newly opened streets in the outlying parts of Brooklyn and Queens. Five or six rooms to the house, wooden shingles on most of the roofs, seven feet, or less, between houses—these areas, according to Henry Wright, architect and housing expert who made an investigation for the Commission, "are different from anything else we have ever had in New York city before and are different from anything else that I know of in the country to anything like the same extent." In one district Mr. Wright found "actually a square mile, built solid with practically the same design of houses universally on 20 foot lots, three and six feet apart alternately. . . . The only thing that is built of brick in that entire square mile is the school house which is about in the center of it."

In houses like these, which sell a little above and sometimes a little below $5,000, Mr. Wright reported: "There is less actual structure, less actual money put into materials and labor in proportion to the total selling price than any other kind of house." The valuation is too low to support assessments for suitable utilities: streets are left in many instances unpaved; cesspools take the place of sewers in sections serving hundreds of houses; fire protection is inadequate. Mr. Wright testified that the entire section represented a serious fire hazard which might easily lead to "the greatest fire in history, which will put New York on record as having one more of the greatest things in the world," and his warning was supported by Robert Adamson, former fire commissioner of New York, and by a number of insurance experts. Even escaping that fate, the district, in the opinion of Mr. Wright, was "potentially the greatest slum in New York," because the lack of public facilities and the original shoddiness of much of the building can hardly fail to lead to quick depreciation.

Making the fire limits, within which buildings must be of fireproof or slow-burning construction, extend to the city line would obviously have prevented such developments, but it remains true that the wooden areas of Long Island represent one easy answer by the speculative builder to the demand for low-cost houses. Another answer is that of a Queens builder who described the six-family houses which he has built in large quantities to rent at nine dollars per room per month—the same rate as the Metropolitan tenements. These apartments, he said, are "practically the old railroad flat"—that is, a straight row of rooms, without central heating of any sort, with only the front and rear room having outside exposure, three others having windows only on an interior court not larger than fifteen feet square, and connected in such a way that passage to the bathroom in the rear is through the central rooms. Technically, this type of building is brought within the tenement laws by giving the interior rooms various fancy names; actually the interior rooms are occupied as bedrooms and the arrangement is an undesirable one. Here is another indication of the way in which good standards are shaved down to bring profitable housing within the reach of small-income families.

WHAT is the answer? Laying aside the obvious and fundamental solution which thorough-going decentralization of industry and industrial housing would offer—a solution toward which at best we can move but slowly—is there any way in which low-cost housing in significant quantities can be provided for wage-earners without sacrifice of essential living values? One of the most interesting comments on this question offered at these New York hearings was that of Walter Stabler, comptroller of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, expert in real estate finance, and the authority on the notable housing demonstration which that company made in Queens Borough, described in The Survey for July 15, 1922. That project has provided well-built quarters for 2,125 families at a rent of nine dollars per room per month, in apartments of from two to six small

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rooms and bath, rented to families with incomes of less than $4,000 per year; and has yielded a net return of 9¼ per cent on the investment. The chairman of the Housing Commission questioned Mr. Stabler as to whether this achievement could now be duplicated. After pointing out various economies which the Metropolitan project had enjoyed, Mr. Stabler answered questions as follows:

Q. The ordinary speculator-builder cannot possibly do this work? He cannot take care of those groups in the way that you have taken care of them?

A. The speculator-builder, a man of small means, could not undertake this work. There are speculative builders of very large means who could. . . . No man must undertake this work or can undertake it if he needs any second mortgage accommodation. . . . The speculative builder does not build from altruism as we did. He builds to sell his houses and make a profit. . . . The man who buys his houses could not get them at nine dollars or even ten dollars.

Q. Then that would lead us to the conclusion that we will have to eliminate the profit basis to get that type of house?

A. We have eliminated it.

Q. You have eliminated it, and you have a waiting list. To take care of this waiting list and the others, we must eliminate, then, the profit motive in building houses of that kind?

A. Yes. . . .

Q. Your company has done its share?

A. We have done it.

Q. But there is no way through speculative building to do this type of thing?

A. I am afraid not. . . .

Q. Then the only way is through a strong company without a desire for a profit beyond a normal return of 6 per cent or thereabouts to carry on operations of that kind?

A. A limited dividend corporation could do it.

Q. And that is the only type of corporation that could?

A. That is about the only type of corporation that could do it. . . .

Q. Their only difficulty then would be securing the finances?

A. Yes.

WHITTLING down the question to one of finance, the matter of state or municipal credit came into view. Much attention was given in the press to the plan which Samuel Untermyer presented for the extension of credit in large amounts by the city of New York. His suggestion was directed to the provision of two-family houses on cheap vacant land, and he believed that there was room for 100,000 of them, to sell for $11,000 or less. The owner would pay $1,000 in cash; the remaining $10,000 would be advanced by the city at 4½ per cent interest on a basis providing for amortization in twenty years.

Mr. Untermyer's figures indicated a total cost to the owner, for interest and amortization, of about six dollars per room per month for eleven rooms, five or six of which on the second floor he could afford to rent out, at a profit, at six or seven dollars a room a month, thus providing additional low-cost housing for thousands of tenants now presumably occupying tenement rooms.

The significance of Mr. Untermyer's proposal lay perhaps not so much in its details as in the fact that any plan for the use of city credit on so large a scale should have had a public hearing. The effect of cheap money on the possible service of a limited dividend corporation was forcibly presented by Alexander M. Bing, president of the City Housing Corporation (see The Survey, Nov. 15, 1924). This corporation is engaged in building operations at Sunnyside, in Queens Borough, which by the summer of 1926 will have provided accommodations for over 600 families—one, two and three-family houses and six-family apartments, all of substantial brick construction, with tile baths and good finish throughout. The terms of sale of the small houses include a 10 per cent down payment and 22-year mortgages, so that after making the initial payment the charges range from ten to eleven dollars per room per month. Purchasers so far include 30 families with incomes of less than $2,000 a year, 63 families earning $2,000 to $3,000, 45 families of $3,000 to $4,000, and 30 families with incomes over $4,000.

While the City Housing Corporation considers a 2 per cent per year amortization payment "absolutely safe," it finds difficulty in borrowing money in sufficient amounts to finance the operation on a large scale. Granted all its present economies of planning and quantity production, a sharp reduction in costs could be made if an adequate supply of money at low interest rates were available.

If there was some source from which we could borrow at 4½ per cent [Mr. Bing testified] whether that source is the state or any other body, we could make a very substantial saving. I figured that assuming an 11-room house that would cost $11,000 . . . . . the saving of interest of 1½ per cent . . . would mean a saving of $1.12 per room per month. Tax exemption would mean a saving of $1.35 per room per month and if the borrower were not forced to make any payments on receiving his mortgage and if he were sure of certain other economies which would eliminate sales costs, and if he were able to build on a larger scale than we have been able to build, additional saving of 70 cents per room per month could very easily be made and still build as good a house as we are building; in other words, without cheapening the house, that would bring down the monthly payment to somewhat over seven dollars per room per month.

Self-respecting buildings selling at such a rate could compete vigorously with rentals in the outlawed old-law tenements of the East Side. It is not a final solution of the city housing problem: for it involves the use of land which is still cheap because it is relatively—but only relatively—inaccessible. It involves the placing of additional strain on transit facilities; it offers no miraculous escape from the vicious circle of city congestion. But it captures for the small-income family the enormous advantages of sound planning, jealously conserved play-space around the buildings (which occupy only 30 per cent of the plot area), sunlight, decency and security of tenure. As an alternative to the mean-spirited haggling over minor repairs which witness after witness testified to as a corollary of life in the old tenements, as an alternative to the mushroom shacks which speculative building is crowding onto raw land elsewhere in the city, it is a stirring opportunity for the wage-worker and his family.

We may be a long distance still from acceptance of the idea of public credit as a resource in housing; it has never been formulated for American consideration in terms sufficiently clear and practical to commend itself widely. Even the function of the limited dividend corporation is little known here. But both these factors, so familiar overseas, were given play in the hearings, which, moreover disclosed some very important general principles: that there is a real awareness in New York of the housing problem as something too fundamental to be dealt with merely by rent laws and other palliatives; that costly financing makes for bad cheap houses, and cheap financing makes for good cheap houses; that public credit is to be reckoned with as a resource worth considering in the search for cheap financing. All of which makes for progress.

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Eighty-three Enforce It

The Spread of Compulsory Military Training in Colleges

WITH the new Congress meeting this month sixty educators, journalists, ministers and liberal leaders have joined in charging the public to reckon with the spread of military training on the American campus. Even under the stress of war psychology universal military training was rejected in the United States, but in the last five years, they charge, a near substitute for it has been "encouraged, supervised and regulated" by the War Department. One hundred and twenty-four American colleges and universities offer the drill and courses of the R. O. T. C.; eighty-three compel their students to go in for them. Altogether 125,500 young men and boys underwent the training last year, and the coercive feature, for which not the federal Act but in a few instances state laws and for the most part the educational authorities themselves are directly responsible, has not gone without resentment on the part of undergraduates. In several instances, individual students have left school rather than submit. Vigorous mass protests at the state universities of Wisconsin, California, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska and Georgia and at numerous other institutions —the latest being City College of New York—have called attention to this situation; but here we have for the first time a formidable national arraignment of the extent to which this military system has encroached upon our scheme of civil education.

The arraignment is supported by marshalled evidence in a brief prepared by Winthrop D. Lane and published by a newly formed Committee on Militarism in Education with headquarters at the Bible House in New York. Among those who as individuals sign the foreword to the pamphlet are Senator Borah, Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt, Professor John Dewey, Harold A. Hatch, Henry N. MacCracken, James H. Maurer, Bishop Francis J. McConnell, Mary E. Woolley, Senator Norris, Kirby Page, John Nevin Sayre, Paul U. Kellogg, J. Henry Scattergood, Senator Shipstead, Ex-governor William E. Sweet and Rabbi Wise. They put the issues thus:

> Mr. Lane's account of the extent of military training in the United States will, we think, come as a surprise to many Americans. . . . Even those who, having read this pamphlet still believe in the R. O. T. C., will surely want to be on their guard against its becoming a means of militarizing America. It would be a tragedy if at the very moment when such ancient enemies as France and Germany are outlawing war between each other, the military spirit should assert itself in the United States.
>
> Our schools ought to be the best defense against this. There, certainly we should have positive education for peace. Such education is wholly inconsistent (1) with military training in the highschools and (2) with compulsory military training in the colleges.

The pamphlet sets forth that military training in American schools had its beginning in the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862, which gave land to the states on the condition that they establish colleges devoted in the main to teaching agriculture and mechanics. Nearly every state has a land grant college, usually the state agricultural college. The law required that military training be offered in these colleges, but it did not make it compulsory. Neither did the National Defense Act of 1916, enlarged and amended in 1920. This set up on the one hand the brief summer training camps (C. M. T. C.) to which any eligible citizen may go, and of which there were 28 last summer. It is the other branch of the system, the Reserve Officers Training Corps, which has spread military training among high schools, colleges and universities outside the old land grant group, and which has been made a compulsory feature of undergraduate life by over one hundred institutions.

Last year Congress appropriated nearly $4,000,000 for the R. O. T. C. Seven hundred and sixty-eight officers and 1,064 enlisted men were detailed by the War Department to the service. In Ohio University, for example, there were 20, in the University of Illinois 22, assigned at government expense. A school may have one or more units, infantry, cavalry, field artillery, signal corps, medical and others; but definite conditions are imposed. These conditions are summarized by Mr. Lane as follows:

> There must be one hundred physically fit male students under military instruction, except fifty may be the minimum in certain branches. An officer of the Regular Army must be detailed by the War Department as "professor of military science and tactics." The school must agree to maintain as a minimum a two years course in military instruction. When a student enters upon such a course, its completion must be a pre-requisite for his graduation unless he be "relieved of this obligation by regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary of War." Finally, the Secretary of War is given authority to prescribe standard courses of military training, and no unit of the R. O. T. C. can exist in a school which does not make these courses part of its curriculum.

Junior divisions of the R. O. T. C. are organized in high schools and preparatory schools, sixty-three high schools have such divisions: and in twenty-three the boys are compelled by local public school administrations to join them.

THE purpose of the military authorities in this rapidly expanding program of military training is variously stated. At a conference called by the Secretary of War on military training in 1922, General Pershing said, "That we have not adopted the principle of universal military service renders it highly essential that training which leads up to and, as far as possible, includes preparation for military service should be popularized by all available methods." Mr. Lane has discovered other enlightening statements as to the purposes of military training which sound much like the system of "education for war" in Germany which was so universally condemned 10 years ago. To be sure, in the Preface to the Junior R. O. T. C. manual, page 5, the object is thus explained "to American Fathers and Mothers":

> The purpose of this book is not to make soldiers of your boys, but to develop them physically, morally and mentally into the best type of citizens, capable of defending our flag should an emergency arise. . . . With the support of the parents we hope to get the American boy outdoors and enjoying these

MILITARY TRAINING IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF THE UNITED STATES: THE FACTS AND AN INTERPRETATION, *by Winthrop D. Lane; published by the Committee on Military Training, 387 Bible House, Astor Place, New York City; 10 cents each, $1.00 for 15, $5.00 per hundred, $45.00 per thousand postpaid.*

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activities . . . which will develop that hardness and uprightness so common to the pioneers who founded this free country.

But in the Infantry Drill Regulations for 1925 for Use with the R. O. T. C. Manual, pp. 168 and 169, army officers are directed:

Always remember that the men are the material being trained and moulded for the work of battle. They should be handled with the same care which an expert artisan gives to a fine tool. . . . So it is necessary that a drill instructor look and act at all times on the drill field and elsewhere like a trained soldier, if he is to create in the minds of his men a desire to be like him. *They are being trained to be soldiers,* and the model should be actually before them. (Italics are Mr. Lane's.)

And finally to the students this stirring admonition is given:

Success in battle, whether attack or defense, is the aim of all military training. Everything that you have studied in this course, and everything that you will study in your further course of military training has that great end in view . . . *success in battle, or victory.* (From the Junior R. O. T. C. Manual, Chap. XIV, p. 499.)

Mr. Lane points out that

Eligibility to receive this military instruction is limited to students who are citizens, who are "not less than 14 years of age," and whose bodily condition indicates that they are physically fit to perform military duty or will be upon reaching military age. Here, as in the regular army, the War Department does not care to waste time and money on any but the physically fit, despite its announcement . . . that better citizenship is the object of the instruction given.

VARIOUS alluring methods are used to "sell" military training to the students. Uniforms are provided for those undergoing training. Those in the basic course also receive travel allowance to and from the summer camp if they elect to go, and they receive subsistence while there. Students in the senior division in addition to their uniform, receive a subsidy in cash, amounting to something like $200, an important sum to a poor boy working his way through college. Colorado Agricultural college provides an "overcoat suitable for wear with both uniforms and civilian clothing." At Georgetown University, an R. O. T. C. rifle team is sent to the National rifle matches. At Oklahoma Agricultural college, a sabre and scabbard are given each year to every student who completes the military course satisfactorily. Other institutions offer medals, prizes and other honors. Military fraternities have grown in strength. At certain universities a 'military ball' outshines the "junior hop." And, as Mr. Lane observes, "while some of these appeals—which play up the monetary or scholastic rewards, or flatter the egotism of the prospective young officer, or stress the necessity for unthinking mass action . . . have at times a humorous side, there is also a deeper aspect which is tragic." Under this "deeper aspect" he arraigns the alignment of immature boys with the world's forces of militarism, and the nurturing of distrust toward other nations.

As Mr. Lane analyses the situation, four important issues stand out as danger points in the present program of military training in our schools.

First, such military training . . . is dangerous because of its extent and the determination of the war department to stimulate its further growth. . . . Second, in line with this danger is the issue raised by making training compulsory in 83 American colleges and many public schools. Students all over the country feel that this is abrogating the rights of conscience. . . . Third, allied to moral freedom for the individual is the question of freedom of teaching for the Universities themselves. . . . He who pays for the piper generally picks the tune, so that when universities encourage military interests to build armories on their campuses, to appoint and pay for military professors on their faculties, to give subsidies to students who take military courses and when finally they hand (*Continued on page* 384)

The Eighty-three

Military training was given last year and according to recent catalogues is compulsory in the following universities and colleges:

STATE UNIVERSITIES

Alabama
Arizona
Arkansas
California
Delaware
Florida
Georgia
Idaho
Indiana
Illinois
Iowa
Kentucky
Louisiana State
Maine
Maryland
Minnesota
Missouri
Montana
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio State
Oklahoma
Oregon
South Dakota
Tennessee
Vermont
Washington
West Virginia
Wyoming

OTHER UNIVERSITIES

College of the City of New York
Cornell
Creighton
DePauw
Emory
Georgetown (Medical School)
Howard
Lehigh
Municipal University of Akron
New York University
Pennsylvania State College
Purdue
University of Cincinnati
University of Dayton
Wilberforce

AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES

Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas
Agricultural College of Utah
Alabama Polytechnic Institute
Clemson Agricultural College
Colorado Agricultural College
Connecticut Agricultural College
Iowa State College
Kansas State Agricultural College
Massachusetts Agricultural College
Michigan Agricultural College
Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College
Montana State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts
New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts
North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering
North Dakota Agricultural College
North Georgia Agricultural College
Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College
Oregon Agricultural College
Rhode Island State College
South Dakota State College
State College of Washington
Virginia Agricultural and Mechanical College and Polytechnic Institute

COLLEGES AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS

Boston University (College of Business Administration)
California Institute of Technology
Coe College
College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Minn. (Preparatory department)
Davidson College
Drexel Institute
Georgia School of Technology
Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Missouri State School of Mines
Presbyterian College of South Carolina
Rose Polytechnic Institute
Rutgers College
State School of Mines, Colorado
Western Maryland

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Without Benefit of the Office

By Adelaide Nichols

IN a school of seven thousand pupils, you are ceaselessly being counted and accounted for. Otherwise you would get lost. You dare not saunter out of a door and venture down a hall without a permit signed with some potent name. You must be ready at any moment to produce documentary evidence that you belong in Room 124 between 10:45 and 11:10 or you will be speedily evicted (but not so speedily as to prevent your receiving a pass permitting you to hurry downstairs to room 24 where you really belong). The halls are full of "patrols" who may demand your credentials at any point and if you fall into their hands without "the papers," woe unto you! You cannot escape your pigeon-hole so easily to roam where fancy or emergency dictates. Far away in some administrative cubicle, your hours and spaces are allotted to you for every day of the five and every hour in the day, and no atom in this well-scheduled universe may move unaccounted for. Aye, not a sparrow falls but it is known at the office, and even the hairs of your head are numbered in the filing system.

There were none who found it harder to understand this than the 1-A-10's. They did not even comprehend the official significance of their title, and that was just as well since it would have overwhelmed them with an inferiority complex. 1-A-10 was constantly moved by impulses and inhibitions not recognized by the program committee, to drink water from distant founts when they should have been in study hall, to go the longest way round to classes, appear bewildered in the wrong rooms, or tarry aimlessly after the bell had summoned them to the grand rush for pastures new. The "system" reached after them with late slips, excuses, special passes, and avenging patrols, but it never fully possessed 1-A-10.

I doubt if it even made a dent in the consciousness of Patrick Bennet. It knew him well but he knew it not. It had him ticketed "Italian," in spite of the name, and in this it was quite correct. You had only to look at his lean brown face with its deer-like eyes under a shock of black hair. It had his I. Q. filed with the lowest, and therefore had planned out his five hours in school on a scheme designed to burden his mind and the high-school system as little as possible. By an early date in the Freshman year, it had a record of Patrick's delinquencies—four days truancy with no excuse from parent, three days late to class in one week, inattention reported by civics teacher, and a report from the gymnasium department that Patrick must absent himself from school till his head had been treated with larkspur. A signed statement was also filed saying that this remedy had been efficacious.

Yet Patrick took little heed of these things. He continued to absent himself from school without explanation; was late three times in the very next week. His zeal for civics was not quickened by an interview with his grade advisor, nor his passion for sanitation by the larkspur. One might as well have tried to systematize and reform a squirrel as to make the slightest impression on Patrick.

More than most of the teachers, I sympathized with Patrick's unconsciousness of "the office," and the tentacle files by which it held us all in place. Fresh from the casual and intimate arrangements of a small private school, I, like Patrick, was prone to wander forth as my will prompted, and not as the office had written. For instance it was only by a reminder, typed and stuck into my box, that I realized that my one free period on Friday must necessarily be spent at my desk in the empty Room 102.

I FOUND this a little irksome sometimes because of Tony. Tony was the Italian janitor who "did" my floor. There was nothing in Tony to flee from save his garrulity. He was roguishly handsome even through the grime of his calling, and his soul did obeisance to anyone who would reward it with a smile.

In the free period on Friday, just as I had started to correct a pile of grammar papers, he put his head in at the door. He did it every Friday, and once it had been a signal to me to flee to a secluded corner of the hall with my papers. But since the "reminder" I knew that was not to be done.

"Miss Teach', you gotta da class now?"

"No, Tony." It would have been useless to lie, for Tony knew my schedule as well as I did.

"All right, I wash da board, now?" he asked sweetly. One could not be ungracious to that smiling face. I sympathized with his desire to finish some of his work before the dark hours of evening. Yet I groaned for myself trying to correct papers in 102.

"Very well." I sighed resignedly.

Tony, with an exquisite bow of gratitude, entered, a pail in one hand and a bundle of gray rags in the other. I turned my eyes sternly on my papers and Tony gave one swipe of energy which obliterated half of a blackboard theme on Silas Marner. Then he looked at me over his shoulder.

"You gladda it Friday, I bet," he said.

"Yes," I was forced to admit.

"You get pritta seek, I tink, wid dem badda boy."

"Oh, most of them aren't very bad, Tony."

"I know. I see dem! Dere pops should giva dem—" What they should give them was so interspersed with Italian and so garbled by Tony's enthusiasm that it was utterly unintelligible. But I nodded approval and tried to correct Lillie Schuman's paper till he had vented his rage. Then he became intelligible again.

"So ! I say you mus' have fine time when come Satday. You go to de show? Or dance maybe?"

"No, I'm going to the country." I little knew what I had started with this innocent remark. Tony dropped pail and cloth in ecstacy.

"Da country! Ah, da country!" he shouted hugging himself. "Where dat country you go to?"

"Connecticut."

"Ah, da Connett! I know! I go to da country in

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Connett one time. I pick appla! Washdon. You know dat place? I tink you go near dere? Oh da country. I wanta . . ." he became unintelligible again, but the lyrical rapture of his tone conveyed that he was a slave in this dusty prison when he would be a satyr piping pastoral ditties among the woods and orchards under a cloudless blue sky. At last came another phrase in English. "Ah, I lika so much live in da country!"

"Why don't you then?" I asked wishing him there, at least until I had averaged Lillie's grammar marks.

"My wife—she no lika. My chil'—dey lika da city. Movies all time and store. They no live in da country."

It was impossible to attempt aloofness from Tony's fate. He leaned in easy grace against the front desk. Work was no longer pressing him. Why should it preoccupy me? I shoved back the grammar papers.

"How many children have you, Tony?" I said.

He shrugged forlornly. "I no gotta many. Only twelve!" he replied.

"Twelve is a good many, I think."

"My brud, he gotta seventeen. My sis' in Italy, she gotta eighteen," he complained enviously. "Me—I gotta twelve. In Chicago where I work, dey all time die."

"Too bad." I said.

"Yes, too bad," he admitted. "My brud, he not got such badda luck. He gotta seventeen."

THE bell rang. Tony rolled startled eyes to heaven and picked up his unused pail. I snapped the elastic band round the fat pile of unopened grammar papers. Tony gave me a more devoted smile than usual.

"Good night, Miss Teach'," he said and shuffled out just in time to escape the inrushing 1-A-10's.

They inundated every seat with a frothing, gasping, giggling wave. They were elate with the knowledge that this was the tenth period on Friday and that there was only one more period to endure before the tedious week closed. They were minded to pass it off as painlessly as possible.

"Let's have a spelling match!" they shouted, regardless of the fact that the second bell demanded silence, "Let's have a spelling match! Please! Please! Please, teacher!"

"No," I said cruelly, "we must correct yesterday's grammar papers. I have looked at a few of them" (in Tony's more unintelligible periods) "and I find a great many mistakes. We mustn't end the week until we understand about the uses of the objective case."

Their faces fell. They felt no inner urge to understand the objective case ere set of sun. "Aw, grammar!" groaned the irrepressibles, and the meek settled back to passive resistance.

I persisted, as unconvinced as they of the urgency or charm of mastering the objective case during that week, but conscious that it was ordained in a schedule and that an examination of the subject lay already in an official pigeon-hole. As the hour wore on, murmurs of dissatisfaction rose, stupid questions, and whispered asides to lighten the tedium, until I burst out in uninspired disgust, "The next person who speaks without permission will leave the room." And as I spoke I knew the public school system had driven me into one of its baser corners.

Hardly had I spoken when Patrick Bennet calmly leaned across the aisle and rested his lean brown chin on Creston DePerin's shoulder. "I didn't write noting for de last answer, did you?" he whispered hoarsely.

"Patrick!"

His eyes flashed to mine like those of a fawn surprised in the silent woods. His jaw dropped.

"Patrick, leave the room."

"Why, teacher?"

I honestly believe he had heard my warning as little as he had ever heard the officials and the gymnasium instructor. All of us were outside his world. But this knowledge was no balm to my ruffled spirit.

"Because you spoke when I told you not to."

"Oh," he said, and his eyes opened wider.

"Get up and go." He rose but took no step toward the door.

"Where do I go, teacher?" he asked blankly.

"Anywhere!" I cried in utter recklessness, "only I can't have boys here who disobey me."

He looked incredulous and the wonder in his dark eyes was reflected in the eyes of the whole class.

"Go along," I repeated. Stumbling and dumb, he went. The class sat rigid with dread to see Patrick Bennet sent out into space without chart or passport. Until the bell rang, 1-A-10 was subdued, and I taught them about the objective case with dogged Friday-afternoon depression.

JUST before school started on Monday, I sat once more at the desk, fresh and buoyant after two days in the country, with crimson oak leaves on my desk. I felt myself strong to overcome the whole "system."

Cordial warmth suffused my heart as Tony's grinning face appeared at the door.

"Miss Teach', you getta da leaf in da country?"

"Yes. Aren't they fine, Tony?"

"Oh pritta!" he said, "I getta you water for dem."

"Thank you, Tony."

But instead of darting toward the laboratory, he approached me mysteriously.

"First I ask you, Miss Teach', whatta matta dat boy."

I looked at him blankly. "What boy, Tony?" I asked.

"Dat Patrick," he answered, "you send him outa da room last day."

I was amazed at his knowledge of an affair I had completely forgotten.

"Oh, Patrick!" I said. "Why, he talked, I think."

"Ah!" Tony grunted savagely. "I know! I see him come outa da room. I sweep by da door. I grab him. I say, 'Patrick, what for you outa da room?' He say in smalla voice, 'I talk.' I bella at him, 'You badda! You troubla da teach'! You gotta da best teach', and you no behave!' I shake him good. He is scared, I tella you! I say, 'Patrick, I tella your pop next time you bad.'"

I was dumbfounded. Truly, I thought, my victim, sent out so recklessly without a passport to the proper seats of justic, fell into vigorous if unauthorized hands!

"But Tony," I said, "you have no right to shake the boys."

"No?" he said and laughed with a comical lifting of eyebrows and an upward sweep of palms. "No? Not all da boy, perhaps, but dat boy Patrick, yes! Him I will shake every day! I tella you how, Miss Teach'. He is my bruda's boy. I fix him for you every time. Why, dat Patrick—he my own neph'!"

Although no record of this incident is filed in the office, I take this occasion to report that it marked a step in the "fixing" of Patrick, scion of the enviable father of seventeen.

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The Common Welfare

OUT of the uncertainty into which the whole question of minimum wage legislation was thrown by the sweeping decision of the Supreme Court in the Arizona case, certain lines of activity are emerging, some definite, some tentative.

Senator Hiram Johnson, who was instrumental in securing the California minimum wage law, will introduce into Congress an amendment to the Constitution, authorizing the individual states to pass minimum wage legislation. Senator Johnson fears that the Supreme Court decision means the breaking down of existing minimum wage laws, followed by a lowering of the standard of living of working women in states where such laws have been in force. This attitude is also expressed by another California advocate of minimum wage legislation for women, who states that "if the law is nullified, instead of 100 per cent of the employers paying the minimum wage now required, in two years only 60 per cent will pay it. The first break will come among the chain stores. They will cut wages and the owners of the large department stores will be forced to follow to meet competition." Senator Johnson foresees congressional opposition: it would probably be a matter of several years, perhaps of many years before such an amendment could be passed and ratified and the authorized legislation secured and put into effect.

AT the annual meeting of the Consumers' League held recently in Boston the effort to spread the Massachusetts plan was selected as the most profitable line of activity for keeping the minimum wage principle alive and working. Under the Massachusetts law a list of firms which are found to underpay women employes is published in the press, and the pressure of public opinion is counted on as a sufficient weapon to bring up the wage scale. There is no penalty imposed by law for failure to pay a standard wage. In Massachusetts the plan has been singularly successful. It would seem that such a plan could be employed by any existing minimum wage board or enacted by any legislature without encountering the obstacle of the Supreme Court decisions. Reliance on publicity rather than on penalties is upheld by not a few as intrinsically desirable. Others regard it merely as the best stop gap solution.

The point of view of the Woman's Party is that wage-earning women must depend not on protective legislation but upon taking their place in the American labor movement as workers, not as women, and safeguard their own rights through organization. Elizabeth Faulkner Baker of Columbia University has recently completed an extensive study of Protective Labor Legislation, with Special Reference to Women in the State of New York. Mrs. Baker shares this point of view. In an early issue of The Survey, the issue of protective legislation for women will be presented from the Woman's Party viewpoint by Mrs. Baker, and from the viewpoint of its upholders and administrators by Frances Perkins of the New York State Industrial Commission.

EVEN in quite sizable cities twenty years ago there were families which kept their own cow. But with the increasing tension of city life and the increasing standardization and regulation of milk, there has come a constantly widening chasm between cow and consumer. Just how wide that chasm is at present becomes apparent in the news reports of the past few weeks, which record the purchase by a national corporation of a large milk company in New York and one in Philadelphia. That corporation's sales will total $100,000,000 annually, it is said. Its stock is quoted regularly on the New York Stock Exchange; within the year it has risen forty points. The cow has entered big business.

What the cow will do there remains to be seen. The president of this national corporation, disclaiming any deep knowledge of the milk business as such, calls attention to the fact that it is a "neglected industry, in so far as consolidations or mergers are concerned." Yet it is the fifth largest industry in the country. In 1924, according to reports of the Department of Agriculture, some fifty-seven billion quarts of milk were produced in this country. About half of that vast volume went directly into homes as milk; the remainder went for butter, cheese, milk chocolate, ice-cream and other milk products, and waste. That last category, the reports estimate, included about 1,750,000,000 quarts, more than was converted into butter, and almost as much as was used for cheese. The consolidating company points to this wastage, and declares that in a national organization of the industry there will be opportunity to work out a more economical policy, so that fluid milk can be converted into dried milk or other imperishable products during the seasons when overproduction is inevitable. There will also be economics, it is argued, through a standardization of general policy, a centralized purchasing system, coordination of advertising efforts and other aspects of production and merchandising. All of this, its president declares, is "bound to be of direct benefit to the farmer and the consuming public."

Such a happy result obviously might be effected. On the other hand it might not. There has been solid and enlightened development on the part of some of the established milk companies. But there have been instances a-plenty in which, at a certain stage, a public service (and the provision of the indispensable foodstuff may well be considered that) has been taken over as subject for financial manipulation until the amorphous public finds that it must pay to support

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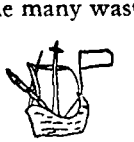
a highly diluted capitalization. Thousands of dollars have been spent during the past decade by disinterested agencies to get people to drink milk and to see that milk is fit to drink. But obviously the permanence of these gains and the success of these efforts in education and welfare must depend in part on the price at which safe milk can be brought to the door, and just as obviously the corporate conditions under which the milk industry is coalescing become a matter of public concern. What are they? Increasingly the public must ask that question and find out.

THE HUMAN FACTOR is the name of a little periodical the first number of which has just been published by the Massachusetts Society for Mental Hygiene. Its aim is stated in its subtitle to be A Service to Industry. Its consulting editorial board includes representatives of the Boston Retail Trade Board, the Harvard Mercantile Health Work, the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, The Associated Industries of Massachusetts, and of companies, clinics, and other groups of people who come at the perplexities of the human factor from the personnel and the psychiatric angle. To those same groups, and to anyone else interested, the Society offers the services of its consultation bureau for information and advice on the psychiatric approach to industry.

So recent a comer is mental hygiene in the general circle of health and welfare movements that it is surprising to find that at least one of its local organizations has outrun the period of research plus general education of the public, which usually ushers in a new campaign, and already is ready to offer concrete service to specialized groups—in this case a service broadly comparable to the aid and advice which the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association has provided in its field for some years past. The readable digest of current material which The Human Factor publishes is more than likely to be useful to the employers, personnel workers, employment managers, store and factory physicians and educators for whom it is intended. Even more significant than its matter, perhaps, is the list of the consultants who sponsor it. If that alignment of specialists on both sides of the fence develops into a working alliance it should cast both light and power into some of the many waste spaces of its provinces.



WITH this autumn twenty-five years have passed since Dr. Walter Reed completed the series of experiments which showed that yellow fever is transmitted by the aëdes mosquito and so freed the western hemisphere from the menace of that deadly disease. Yellow fever had smouldered in Havana for nearly a century and a half, intermittently leaping the gulf between Cuba and the southern states to light up epidemics in this country which were known to spread as far north as Boston. In 1878 one such outbreak caused 16,000 deaths in the south, and a money loss estimated at $100,000,000, a staggering burden on the post-war years. When Cuba came under the control of the United States after the Spanish War a yellow fever commission under Dr. Reed was sent to Havana to stamp out the disease. They started work the summer of 1900. As it was believed that animals were immune to yellow fever, volunteers were needed to test the mosquito theory and members of the Commission as well as the privates assigned to it, offered themselves. In August Dr. James Carroll and Private W. H. Dean contracted the disease and were saved only by the narrowest margin; a few days later Dr. Jesse Lazear died. Nine of the first eleven volunteers developed yellow fever.

In October the Commission announced officially their conviction that the mosquito theory had been proved, and on November 20 they opened Camp Lazear in a remote spot in the interior where their final series of experiments were made. Two elaborately screened frame houses were built. In one of them volunteers were exposed to the bites of mosquitoes which were known to have been in contact with yellow fever patients; in the other, which purposely was made dark and without adequate ventilation, but protected from mosquitoes, other volunteers spent their time in unpacking clothing and bedding which had belonged to people who had died of the disease. The first group developed yellow fever; the second did not. The tests were repeated until the theory was established beyond all doubt.

Seven months later, following an energetic campaign, Cuba was declared free of yellow fever for the first time since the middle of the Eighteenth century. By 1905 Dr. Gorgas had rid the Canal Zone of the disease which, more than anything else, had defeated the French. Despite the campaigns which the International Health Board has fostered in Central and South America, there have been a few sporadic cases, but yellow fever has become one of the historic plagues, except perhaps on the Guinea coast of Africa. There is an engaging theory that yellow fever was brought from Africa in the water casks of the early slave ships. Whatever its source, it took the lives of thousands each year until this group of scientists and soldiers paid the heroic cost which bought the freedom of two continents.

IF there is any one thing clear about low-cost housing it is that, whatever its potentialities, profit-seeking builders are not now producing in sufficient quantity and adequate quality the housing which wage-workers need. Mr. Rubinow calls attention (p. 355) to the fact that Philadelphia, clinging to the myth that almost everybody owns his own house, is actually building far fewer dwellings than it needs and is making undesirable use of the supposedly single-family houses that it already has. The evidence offered in the New York rent hearings (p. 337) tends to demonstrate that profit-seeking capital, when it concerns itself at all with housing at minimum costs, drifts into marginal types of construction which fall short of meeting sound standards.

In the light of the evidence from New York, Mr. Rubinow's envious glances at the Bronx and Brooklyn hardly seem justified. Experimentation is assuredly needed before a building program is found that can command the support of social workers. For one thing, accurate information as

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to costs—the relative costs per family housed in one, two and multi-family dwellings and the relative availability of rented and purchased dwellings—is lacking. Some evidence along these lines is now being gathered by Henry Wright in a detailed analysis of building costs of the City Housing Corporation at Sunnyside and of commercial builders operating on a large scale in comparable areas. Without doubt Philadelphia must eventually follow American trends in giving up as a working base the idea of a one-family house for every family. But how it should build, in what units, on what financial plan, with what reference to streets and transit—these questions need much more light than can be now derived from the haphazard and discouraging experience which New York has to offer.

THE city of Philadelphia has recently had a taste of planning on the grand scale in the opening of its costly Fairmount Parkway, cutting through to the very heart of the city. Plans of the Pennsylvania Railroad for relocating its tracks and terminals, and the general stir of "progress" associated with the proposed Sesquicentennial Celebration in 1926 have thrown a glamor over all sorts of projects for "improvements." It is again urged that Chestnut Street, one of the crowded narrow main thoroughfares of the city, be arcaded to facilitate the movement of traffic on wheels and afoot. But Philadelphia is without adequate zoning ordinances, and the City Parks Association in its thirty-sixth annual report recently issued calls attention forcibly to the vicious circle which arcading without building control would initiate.

> Now if Chestnut Street were arcaded [asks the Association] what would be the result? The modern highwaymen, who think they can make money by congestion, would immediately proceed to erect skyscrapers not twenty-five but forty-five stories in height on the plea that the new width could accommodate buildings of that height. When a number of buildings had been built to that height, there would again be severe congestion; whereupon the same highwaymen would demand that the taxpayers of Philadelphia should foot another perfectly enormous bill to make Chestnut Street still wider, in order to work out still higher front foot valuations.

The idea that the relationship between bulk of buildings which create traffic and the carrying capacity of the streets which serve them must be stabilized unless our money for "planning" is to be poured into a sieve is an obvious one, and yet one which has barely entered into our municipal consciousness. Philadelphia has shown courage in dealing with its highway situation: here is an opportunity for creative intelligence as well.

WHILE the City Parks Association preaches the folly of congestion in Philadelphia, the New York Times fires a shot for decentralization in New York. In an editorial on Congested Manhattan, under date of November 7, a factual note is struck which comes much nearer home than most of the campaign twaddle about traffic relief. Says the Times:

> If industrial centralization in Manhattan is to continue, it is doubtful whether the most elaborate schemes of transit extension will bring relief. Subways under every longitudinal avenue, subways under the two rivers every ten blocks of latitude, may only supply the incentive for forty-story garment and printing lofts and multiple-acre office buildings. The annual value of manufactures in Manhattan is about three billion dollars. Seventy-five per cent is represented by just two industries, apparel and printing and publishing, both of which are rapidly concentrating within less than a square mile of Manhattan. . . . And yet it is precisely this manufacturing life of the city that lends itself most easily to decentralization . . . there seems to be no inherent reason why industry cannot be carried to the outskirts of the city and near to the homes of the workers. . . . At present, industry in New York is still firm in the grasp of a pre-industrial, pre-telephone and wireless psychology. Like the village cobbler, it insists on carrying on its work in the front window.

Follow that idea to its logical conclusions; consider moving industry not only to the outskirts of the city where workers live but to the points where raw materials and workers may most easily and cheaply be brought into natural producing centers with an efficient relation to the sources of food supply, and you approach the idea of regional planning set forth in The Survey for May, 1925—an idea which gains practical force with every fresh awakening to the costs of congestion.

TWELVE years ago Richard (Blackie) Ford began a life sentence for complicity in the murder of District Attorney Manwell, who was shot in the "hop-pickers' riot" near Wheatland, California, in August, 1913. Ford was released on parole in September, 1925. On October 9 a special grand jury indicted him for the murder of Deputy Sheriff Riordan, killed in the same riot. Ford's case was set for the December term of court at Marysville. It was announced that he would be prosecuted by the son of the man killed.

The Wheatland riot was a revolt against insanitary conditions in the "tent city" on the Durst hop ranch, where about 2,500 men, women and children were living during the 1913 hop harvest. There was an insufficient water supply, and the lack of toilet provisions and garbage disposal caused an epidemic of dysentery in the camp. One Sunday afternoon a meeting was held to protest against these conditions. Ford, a well-known I.W.W. orator, addressed it. The ranch owner, fearing trouble, telephoned for the authorities. At a critical moment a deputy sheriff fired a shot in the air "to sober the crowd." In the riot that immediately followed, the district attorney, a deputy sheriff and two workers were killed. It was not charged that Ford and his companion, Suhr, did the shooting, but as leaders in the meeting they were convicted for complicity in murder after a trial that attracted wide interest.

Carleton Parker's investigation into the Wheatland riot and his report to the United States Commission on Indusrial Relations (The Survey, March 21, 1914) was perhaps his most striking performance in what became his chosen field: the exploration of psychological forces entering into mass action and industrial unrest. The story of his work, work cut short by his early death, was told by Mrs. Parker

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in her book, An American Idyll. While the general hue and cry was satisfied in imprisoning the leaders of the riot, the California State Housing and Immigration Commission, under the chairmanship of Simon Lubin (Parker was its first secretary), set going its constructive work, which was instrumental in bringing about the improved living conditions of migratory workers in California's hop and fruit harvest today. Ten years later a battalion of toilets scattered over the Durst tract stood like memorials of a slovenly past.

But though most people have forgotten the Wheatland riot, and though the conditions Ford agitated against that Sunday afternoon meeting twelve years ago have been in large measure corrected, this I.W.W. leader must again face a murder trial. It is difficult to see how any good purpose can be served by his second prosecution. Quite aside from the legal question as to whether this is or is not twice putting life and limb in jeopardy for the same offense, the case seems to be animated less by desire for justice, than for a desire for revenge which has taken the place of the cooled passions and panicky psychology of twelve years ago. Was the pardon after twelve years of incarceration genuine, or merely a gesture? The new trial will be bruited in a thousand quarters as another proof of the truth of that bitter philosophy which holds that in American law courts there is "no square deal" for the "under" man who dares to question the existing order.

LIKE Topsy, the public health activities of the federal government just growed. They began in 1798 when the collectors of customs were authorized to collect twenty cents a month from each American seaman on merchant ships arriving from foreign ports, in order that medical relief might be given to those who needed it. Hence, from purely historical reasons, the presence of the Public Health Service, now expanded to cover a great many fields, in the Department of the Treasury. The next medical agency of the federal government was a hospital for the insane, created in 1855, and now under the Department of the Interior. The Secretary of the Department of Agriculture got an appropriation of $10,000 in 1894 for studies in nutrition, and now there is under the Department a Bureau of Home Economics with an annual budget of more than $100,000. The Bureau of Education has a division on school hygiene and since 1909 it has administered medical relief to the natives of Alaska. The Children's Bureau, whose activities center in health measures, was created in the Department of Commerce and Labor in 1912, and transferred to the Department of Labor in 1912, while the collection of vital statistics still is a function of the Department of Commerce. Of the hundred or more important administrative units of the federal government, at least thirty deal directly or indirectly with some phase of public health, and these thirty have cropped up in response to specific needs, in all ten of the executive departments as well as in a score or so of independent establishments.

Obviously it is likely that the specific child or man or woman whose wellbeing is the aim of this myriad of functions, would fare better if there were some way of coordinating all these services. A plan to bring federal health activities together in a national bureau of health was advocated actively from 1910 to 1912, and sponsored by President Taft in two messages. During the war a degree of real coordination under the Public Health service was effected by executive order, and since then there have been repeated suggestions to that effect. In last year's proposal for a general executive reorganization, on which Congress took no action, there was a projected Department of Education and Relief, in which, strangely enough, the Public Health Service would have been included. During the past year the Institute for Government Research of Washington has made an intensive study of federal health activities, aided informally by sanitarians who are convinced of the greater efficiency and economy which might be obtained by coordination. A compromise plan bringing together the federal government's scattered health bureaus under a Department of Education and Health, in which the highest ranking officer concerned solely with public health would be an assistant secretary, will probably be offered in Congress at the session now beginning.

IS it legitimate for a college to tell its students that there are bolshevists, boot-leggers and stock-exchange gamblers in the world? Some years ago the legislators in a certain western state argued that young people should be sheltered from all such knowledge, and they came near enacting their doctrine into law. In those days, "evolution" was a word with a better reputation than "revolution," and those same legislators proposed to change the name of a certain great historical movement from the "industrial revolution" to the "industrial evolution of the last hundred and fifty years." This proposal failed—after the sense of humor of the state began to work. But, it must be admitted that, on the whole, we have a considerable fear of the contamination of unwelcome facts. We may still hold, theoretically, to the ancient teaching that "the truth shall make you free"; but do we hold that facts have any such function?

The recent pronouncement of President Ernest M. Hopkins, of Dartmouth, before the Amherst Alumni Council, comes as a welcome change from the monotony of our fearfulness in these matters. He argued, before the five hundred college graduates present at those council meetings, for complete freedom of speech in all educational matters. He said that Dartmouth was applying the principle of securing to the students access to all sides of questions, including the presentation of pernicious doctrines, and he insisted that this was not antagonistic to the established purposes of the college.

> I should freely admit [he said] that if Dartmouth were a training school, trying to discipline men into an acceptance of the theory that all present-day procedures were desirable for permanency and for the advantage of group welfare, the college ought definitely to assume responsibility not only for what should be taught in every course but what should be said by every member of the faculty and what men should be allowed to speak before the student body even on invitation of independent undergraduate organizations.
>
> Believing definitely, however, that the function of an educational institution is to allow men access to different points of view and to secure their adherence to conclusions on the basis of their own thinking rather than an attempt to corral them within given mental areas, I was bound to hold to the theory

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that freedom of speech and even the presenting of pernicious doctrine was not antagonistic to the college purpose so long as like access was not denied to the student to other points of view, and so long as stimulation was given to his mind to weigh these things for himself.

This address by President Hopkins was able, according to news reports, to "rouse to enthusiasm" the five hundred alumni who heard it. What, in view of this report, becomes of the legend that football is the only thing that can stir the enthusiasm of the college alumnus? Or of the equally substantiated tale that college men have no intellectual interests? It may be, that, like the banquetters who gave "three cheers for the poor," these alumni merely gave a few moments of emotion to the praise of intellectual pursuits, and to the doctrine that knowledge may be constructive. But if five hundred college alumni become really enthusiastic about freedom of teaching, they could start a wave of sanity that might save the country from intolerance.

UNLIKE most of the states, which either rely on the federal decennial census for information about their own population, or, in some cases, call upon the Census Bureau for specialized pieces of service, the state of New York has taken its own decennial census regularly since 1875. The figures of the 1925 enumeration are now in process of tabulation and publication. The state census of 1915 cost about half a million dollars and, though more than a dozen items of inquiry were listed on the schedules, only total population and the facts as to citizenship were tabulated.

It is a serious question whether these facts alone are worth the money it takes to get them. For the constitutional purpose of reapportioning the membership of the state legislature it would appear that the impartial and accurate results offered by the federal census were quite sufficient. The justification for so large a state expenditure would lie in the degree to which socially valuable data were secured and made available. The output of the present census, and of others in the future, might be made unique and memorable.

Over half the population of the entire state are residents of New York city. No other area is so intensely interested in or so dependent upon detailed tabulations, by sex, age, nativity, color, citizenship and if possible by occupation. The city needs this data not only in terms of political units, such as the assembly districts, but also in terms of the forty-acre neighborhood units now used by the Health Department as sanitary districts for the study of death, birth and morbidity records. The city already has the tabulations of population by these same areas for 1910 and 1920, and needs the data for 1925 for comparative purposes.

The Milbank Memorial Fund has begun one of its three New York state health demonstrations in the Bellevue-Yorkville district of the middle east side of Manhattan. It is essential that the workers in this district have an accurate population base for estimating present health conditions and for planning future programs. This area covers parts of six assembly districts and includes many sanitary areas. By the use of the sanitary unit tabulations of health and population data differences within the area can be discovered and explained. There is a similar health demonstration going on in Syracuse and in the rural county of Cattaraugus. Analysis of population and health data by sex, age, nativity and color is essential, as well as by geographical location.

It is of the greatest importance to tabulate the state census facts so as to make them comparable with similar facts of the 1920 federal census. This is especially desirable because January 1, 1920, when the federal census was taken, was probably an abnormal time in population movements. During the war population had shifted to suit war emergency needs and after the close of the war sufficient time had not elapsed for readjustments to take place.

The count of 1920 revealed a marked shifting of population from Manhattan to other boroughs of the Greater City. Manhattan was actually smaller in numbers in 1920 than in 1910. This movement was in accord with the fervent hopes of city planners. Has it continued? Neighborhoods within boroughs have been changing, for example the colored district of Harlem in Manhattan. Where is population moving within the boroughs of the Greater City? This information is vital in relation to transportation and housing, and in relation to the location of schools and other public improvements.

This is the opportunity of the state census and would be its justification.

THE E. H. Harriman Memorial Medal for the best record in accident prevention among American railroads for the year 1924 has been awarded to the Union Pacific System by the unanimous vote of the committee of award. The medal is offered annually through the American Museum of Safety by Mrs. Harriman. The Union Pacific was one of four systems whose data, submitted to the committee, showed that not a single passenger was killed in train accidents in 1924. Industrial accidents on the Union Pacific were responsible for 7 deaths and 552 injuries in a total of more than 112,000,000 man-hours of work. The bronze medal offered to the railroad employe who individually has been most conspicuous in furthering accident prevention during the last year was awarded to Joseph Kragskow, assistant foreman in the Omaha shops of the Union Pacific. In 56 years of continuous railroad service, Mr. Kragskow has never received an accidental injury, and more than a quarter of a century before the origin of the "safety movement" he invented several very effective accident prevention devices.

Less encouraging than this committee report is the analysis of the 166 death claims for fatalities reported to have resulted from industrial accidents in the state of New York during October. The largest number of deaths in this month occurred in the construction industries. They numbered 41. Transportation industries, for which there were 34 deaths, were second. Death tolls of 13 and 12 respectively were reported by the trade and service groups. Ten workers were killed in the manufacture of metal goods, and the same number in the making of food products. Commenting on this depressing record, Commissioner James A. Hamilton of the State Department of Labor said,

Continued increase in the number of death claims filed at the five local offices of the Workmen's Compensation Bureau leads

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me to caution both employers and workers as to the need of exercising more care. The loss entailed by the death of a worker in the course of and in connection with his employment necessarily creates suffering upon the surviving dependents besides being a charge to industry.

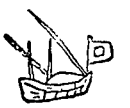
In the larger sense, the whole "safety movement" depends for its ultimate success upon a long campaign of education which will increase individual foresight and responsibility. [See The Survey, October 15, 1923, p. 104.] Certain aspects of the problem, such as the appalling increase in the number of grade crossing accidents, can be met by mechanical improvement. It is to be hoped that the authorization of bonds to the extent of $300,000,000 for the elimination of grade crossings, voted at the recent election, means the successful control of this kind of accident in New York.

ASIDE from the failure of Governor Pinchot's attempted intervention, the outstanding developments in the anthracite strike in the past month have been the entrance of two groups—first, the activity of business forces in the hard coal field, and second, joint representations by engineers and economists following the 46th annual meeting of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. They underscore the public service element in the industry. Morris L. Cooke of Philadelphia acted as their spokesman, and in an identical letter sent to the chairman of the Anthracite Operators' Negotiating Committee and the president of the United Mine Workers, the forty-one signers urge:

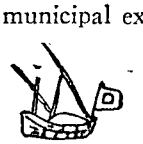
> a continuing joint agency which will concern itself not so much with the adjustment of grievances as with the constructive consideration of the underlying economic and technical facts by which all questions of wages, working conditions and earnings must in the end be determined.
>
> Observation and experience convince us that joint effort on the part of management and workers in improving methods of production and distribution can increase wages and lift and stabilize earnings at the same time that they lower the price to the consumer.

SO far as the mining industry as a whole goes, the major development has been the issuance of the report of the U. S. Coal Commission. Its findings were spiritedly interpreted by Edward T. Devine, a member of the Commission, in the Survey Graphic for November, 1923. The volumes of the report, with their wealth of material, will be reviewed in a later issue.

This may well be made the occasion to clear up any misapprehensions on the point of a Common Welfare paragraph in the October Midmonthly, which criticized John Hays Hammond for advocating the repeal of the Pennsylvania Miners Certificate Law in speaking before the Civic Federation in New York. This we took exception to both because the law is demonstrably socially valuable, and because for an outstanding representative of the public to urge its repeal in the midst of a strike was to "advocate the one measure that above all others is calculated to influence the minds of the anthracite miners with resentment." The passage placed Mr. Hammond as "chairman of the late United States Coal Commission," and may have given the impression that the commission favored the repeal of the law. This is in no sense the case, and was far from our intention. The proposal was a flyer by Mr. Hammond on his own. Indeed he stated that he spoke as an individual.



TUCKED away in the intricacies of bond issues and budgets in a Palm Beach interview, comes the suggestion that the mayor-elect of New York city plans to consult the New York Academy of Medicine before he makes his appointments in the Department of Health, to find out the professional qualifications of the candidates, and to select those who can be endorsed by the medical organization. This is almost revolutionary common sense. No city department suffers more quickly and more deeply than a health department from the prevalent practice which hands out its offices as political plums to good boys of the party. The medical profession, like any other, has its more and less effective members, and even an intelligent and honest physician is not necessarily fitted to undertake a job of health administration in a large city. The work of a health officer and the responsible members of his staff requires a specialized training and experience. But so deeply has the spoils system infected many American cities that the obvious principles which would be observed in the conduct of any big business often are shelved when it comes to the community's most vital concern. If Mr. Walker does follow this plan he will be setting an admirable municipal example.



UNCLE SAM is somewhat in the position of the Old Woman who Lived in a Shoe: he has so many prisoners he doesn't know what to do. So, according to the report which Hastings H. Hart made a few days ago before the Fifty-fifth Congress of the American Prison Association, he boards them out in the county jails. At present there are more than 7,000 federal prisoners in institutions over which the federal government has no control. Many of them are merely waiting on trivial charges, yet they are herded (sometimes five prisoners in a cell built for one) with old offenders in buildings which often are filthy and vermin-infested, while Uncle Sam strikes the best bargain he can with the jail warden for the price of their food. That price varies from twenty cents a day, which is paid in five jails in Porto Rico, to three dollars a day, the rate in three Alaska jails. In a number of states this food allowance goes directly to the sheriff or jailer, and he is entitled to keep for himself anything which he can save out of it. It would be impossible, says the report, to conceive a more vicious system. Since the rate is designed to cover only food, with no allowance for rent or other overhead, the country loses, while the county prisoners suffer as well by the congestion which this arrangement causes. To meet this condition, which the report condemns as "hopelessly unsatisfactory from every point of view," it is recommended the government establish a jail system of its own, each jail to serve a territory with a radius of fifty miles.

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HEALTH

Getting Ready for School

SUPPOSE that you were a first grade or a kindergarten teacher, confronted some September morning with thirty or forty unfamiliar pairs of eyes, mischievous, apprehensive, eager? Suppose that you were a school nurse, entrusted with the supervision and follow-up of two thousand, three thousand, perhaps even five thousand active young persons of all ages? Any crumb of information that would give an accurate picture of the health and disease, the physical capacity and weakness of those children individually would be clear gain in the difficult task of becoming acquainted with them and so knowing and meeting their needs.

At least one progressive city health department has cherished for some time the hope that it would be able to put into the hands of the school a card which would tell the past history of each little new student from birth—listing his or her infant illnesses, the course of progress through the baby health station, the record of past measles or whooping cough or rheumatism which might be most useful to teachers, school nurses and school physicians. While this enlightened plan has not become a general official procedure, it has been tried in several instances by volunteer groups, who felt sure that they could demonstrate its usefulness, economy and practicability. Notable among these demonstrations is that of the Mulberry Health Center in New York city, organized and maintained by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

For six years the Mulberry Health Center has maintained a medical clinic for the periodical examination of preschool children and a nursing staff to follow up the doctor's recommendations and see that they were carried out. At first these children were recruited from the families whose mothers had been enlisted in the prenatal service of the health center, but it soon became evident that with the help of the schools and the health department a much larger proportion of the district could be enrolled. So in the spring of 1923 the present plan was first tried. The children in the public and parochial schools are asked to tell their teachers the names of the younger brothers and sisters who would go to school in the fall, and the principal sent a note home asking that these children be taken to the Mulberry Health Center for a physical examination and then turned the names over to the Health Center for follow-up. Coming from the school this invitation had the weight of an official request. Other names came in, of course, from the nurses themselves, and from the baby welfare stations of the Department of Health. Some 4,500 of them are now arranged in a file, under the month and year of each child's birth, and every effort is made to see that each child comes in to the Center during his birthday month for a general medical examination.

In making these examinations the Health Center has had the cooperation of physicians of the Department of Health, who aided also in vaccinating some of the children and immunizing others against diphtheria and scarlet fever. In correcting dental defects the Health Center works in cooperation with the New York Dispensary, a permanent institution which will carry on in this district after the demonstration is over, buying service from the Dispensary as it is needed. An effort is being made to have the parents pay a part of the cost—twenty-five cents a child for all necessary work.

If the general medical examination showed malnutrition, the child was entered in a special nutrition service held in the Health Center itself, coming once a month to be weighed and measured and examined by the doctor. Whenever possible the mothers are urged to accompany the child to the clinic, especially if the scales show a losing or even a stationary weight, since it then is possible to find out with more exactness about the dietary and other habits of the family and to give the recommendations to headquarters. At each monthly visit the nutrition worker shows the mother how to prepare some simple and suitable food, such as cocoa or properly cooked oatmeal. Often, however, the youngster is towed in by an older sister or even an older brother, sometimes a graduate of the system who knows all its details and waits with interest for a share in the cocoa and the health pictures to be crayoned while waiting a turn with the doctor. In these cases, of course, the nurse visiting the home must fill in many items of the record and carry the doctor's advice to the mother.

As a result of that first concerted drive 1,359 children, most of them between four and six, had been reported to the health center by September 1, 1924. Nearly half of them were referred directly by the schools; the rest came from the Center's own contacts. Of that number 764, or 56 per cent, actually came for their examinations and again about half of the recommendations actually were carried out. During the school year 1924-5, the Center had reached and examined slightly more than half of all the children who entered the schools for the first time; and it saw a quarter of them who went in with some or all of their physical defects corrected. September 1925 saw an even better record; the Center had examined

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56 per cent of the new entrants and could certify 38 per cent as ready for school; moreover, for the first time it sent with each of its children the card referred to above to guide the continuing work of the school health staff.

No demonstration can hope to win permanent footing in the neighborhood it serves unless it can show that it can be carried on permanently at a reasonable cost. For that reason the Mulberry Health Center has kept a very careful record of the expenses of its pre-school service, charging against it the cost even of such parts of the plan as were donated, such as the aid of the Department of Health physicians. The result is computed on the basis of the medical services, time the nurses spent in the field, the cost of the necessary records and clerical help, and the proportion of the general overhead for supervision properly chargeable to this special effort.

The total cost of the drive on behalf of the children who entered the schools in September 1924, was $3,093.51, or $2.21 for each child whose name had been listed. Registration alone came to approximately 13 cents a child; a nursing visit cost 68 cents; the examination of a child, $1.62. In the elaborate further analysis which the Health Center made (published in full in the Journal of the American Public Health Association for September, 1925) the outstanding fact is the economy of obtaining the parents' cooperation. There were 52 children whose defects were all corrected without nursing follow-up; for these children the cost of this pre-school service was $1.74 per child. There were 244 children who reported all defects corrected with an average of 2.3 nursing visits each; that cost $3.33 per child. There were 108 children who had some defects corrected, after what averaged 2.4 nursing visits, at a cost in all of $3.37 per child; and for 360 with no corrections at all to their credit, despite an average of more than two nursing follow-ups, the cost was almost as great—$3.16.

Courtesy of the New York World

"SPINACH, FOR THE BOY"

Apparently if such a piece of work is to be conducted economically and effectively every effort must be made to win the active interest and help of the parent at the first examination of the child.

While children under school age are coming suddenly and with justice into the limelight in public health discussions, there are comparatively few well established plans for dealing with them. San Francisco and Philadelphia are among the cities which have developed experimental pre-school clinics to get children ready to enter certain of the public schools. The city-wide plan developed in Kansas City by the Parent Teacher Associations and the Visiting Nurse Association has been described in The Survey [March 15, 1924]. The well known Habit Clinics in Boston have contributed another working model with a different emphasis. Mulberry Health Center offers what its executives believe "an economic and efficient community program for reaching the pre-school child which will appeal to other communities facing the same problem."

Cancer

ONE day the newspapers carry the account of a new lead treatment for cancer described by Dr. W. Blair Bell of the University of Liverpool; the next, the announcement that the Imperial Cancer Research Fund of Great Britain is about to issue a report which is expected to confirm the studies of Drs. Gye and Barnard in that field. [See The Survey, August 1, 1925.] The hopes and fears aroused by even the most careful statement of the research at present under way into the cause and treatment of cancer makes especially valuable the timely summary just made public by the American Society for the Control of Cancer on the study of work in Europe made this summer and autumn by the Society's managing director, Dr. George A. Soper.

Dr. Soper found that "the idea that cancer will soon be controllable as a result of some great discovery such as led to the preventive and curative measures which are already in force against certain other diseases, is nowhere entertained." There is no drug or serum in general use for the cure of cancer which has the endorsement of the medical profession in Europe; the procedures which are employed abroad for the diagnosis and cure of cancer are essentially the same as those used by physicians of equal standing in the United States. In Europe as in America it is generally recognized that many lives can be saved if people, learning the early symptoms of cancer, will consult a physician at the first sign that something is wrong, and undergo treatment if the trouble is found to be cancer.

Only one of the fifty and more experts with whom Dr. Soper talked felt that cancer was contagious, and he added that probably he was the only physician in France who held that opinion. It was not generally regarded as hereditary, but there was a nearly universal opinion that irritation often played a part in the formation of the disease.

The papers of Gye and Barnard were . . . recognized [Dr. Soper reports] as of stimulating value wherever a laboratory for cancer research or bacteriology existed. In many places men and women were setting to work to follow up this line of research. Not all the experienced workers who were interviewed, however, were convinced that the whole of the Gye and Barnard work could be corroborated. More expressed confidence in the data than in the necessity for some of the conclusions. . . . Dr. Gye himself, while expressing

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confidence in his results, did not claim to have unraveled the whole problem and wished it to be expressly understood that his results, even if fully confirmed, by no means indicated how cancer could be cured.

While the value of statistics on cancer varies greatly in different countries, there is at least question as to whether or not the disease is becoming more prevalent. There is undoubtedly more accurate diagnosis now than formerly; and undoubtedly more people are being saved from the diseases of early life to reach the years when cancer is a frequent cause of death.

A Home-Made Health Center

SIX years ago the Red Cross chapter of Dolgeville, New York, was about to disband. The war was over; what was there to do? The health officer of the village, Dr. Charles G. Strobel, thought he knew. He went before the annual meeting in January, 1920, and asked it to continue as an organization for some *local* purpose. The meeting agreed to the extent of promising him fifty dollars for such an undertaking, its nature to be determined by himself, and with that fifty dollars this story began—a community case history in health.

Dr. Strobel felt that Dolgeville needed a public health nurse. He talked to his friends, and then he arranged to have "ladies' meetings" held in homes in three different sections of the town, and asked the state Department of Health to send some one to talk to them. Then a public meeting was called, and the same representative talked to the twenty who came! Among those twenty was the Roman Catholic priest of Dolgeville, who became one of the prime supporters of the movement. That same evening the Dolgeville Public Health Association was formed, elected officers, arranged to have its constitution and by-laws drafted, and authorized the health officer to get a nurse, if possible.

The possible was written into this plan by three of the large industries in the town, which contributed two hundred dollars each. Then the village was divided into districts, which, canvassed by volunteers, provided another six hundred dollars. Within a week from the organization meeting the nurse was on the job, and as she arrived in the midst of an epidemic of influenza no one had to waste time finding work for her to do. There was no equipment, no health center, no office, but calls were left for her at one of the drug stores. The nurse's salary was $100 a month.

About a year and a half from the starting day a small vacant building was borrowed from the Department of Education and fitted up as a health center. By the spring election of 1922 the idea of health work had become so well established that a proposition was brought before the taxpayers that the village appropriate eight hundred dollars annually to support the Association, and carried by a narrow margin. The rest of the budget was contributed by some of the industries and by individuals. There was also a small regular income from the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, for which the nurse acted on the understanding that her fees in insurance cases be turned back into the Association. When the question of the annual appropriation came before the taxpayers in the spring of 1924 it was carried by a good majority, though the amount was increased that year from eight hundred to sixteen hundred dollars and though two other appropriations, one for paving and one for band concerts, were rejected.

Unfortunately the school building had to be given up and for a time the Association was forced to make shift with rented rooms, which were expensive and not very satisfactory. Then the health officer discovered that there was a little—used flag station south of the village. After several months of negotiation with the railroad, it was arranged to purchase it for $125 though it had cost con-

Outline of Duties of the Health Association Nurse

1. The nurse shall reside in the Village of Dolgeville, N. Y.

2. The working hours of the nurse shall be from 8:45 to 5 P.M., with one hour for lunch at noon time. The nurse will not be required to be on duty from Saturday at 1 P.M. until Monday at 8:45 A.M., except in case of severe epidemic or great emergency. From 8:45 A.M. to 9:30 A.M. and from 1 P.M. to 2 P.M. she shall be at the Health Center. These hours are fixed except in emergency. When not actually engaged in the performance of her duties elsewhere, she shall be at the Health Center.

3. Included among the main duties to be performed are to aid in detecting, preventing and controlling diseases, to do actual bedside nursing, as time permits, to demonstrate hygienic measures, the preparing of baby's food, the sterilization of dressings, etc.

4. The nurse shall be at the command of the school physician in aiding him to control the spread of preventable diseases but is not required to help the school physician make the annual physical examination of the school children unless she chooses so to do and this shall not interfere with regular nursing hours nor with any emergency call.

5. The nurse shall respond to emergency calls from any physician at any time when it is possible for her to do so and she shall help any physician at any operation when required to do so by the physician.

6. The nurse shall consult with the Health Officer on all questions of policy, make verbal reports when advisable, make a monthly report in writing to the Board of Health.

7. The nurse shall contract to do the nursing in the village for the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, all remuneration for this work to be paid to the treasurer of the Health Association.

8. The nurse shall in no instance assume the responsibilities of a physician but shall advise the employment of a regular physician when in her judgment it is best to do so; no favoritism shall be shown by the nurse, however, but she shall insist that people make their own choice in each case. If suspicious of contagious disease, she shall notify the Health Officer.

9. The salary of the nurse shall be $125 per month. She shall have thirty days vacation during the year, with pay, and shall not be paid for other lost time.

10. No one patient shall monopolize the nurse's time. The nurse will undoubtedly find many opportunities to make herself of inestimable value and comfort to the people.

11. The nurse shall collect, when feasible or practicable, a fee not to exceed 75 cents for each nursing visit, and a fee not to exceed three dollars for attendance at childbirth; smaller amounts to be accepted. All money so collected is to be turned over to the treasurer of the Health Association.

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siderably more than that to build. There was a central plot of land near the Union School, owned in part by the School District, in part by the village. This could be had without cost. A meeting of the executive board of the Health Association was called and the health officer laid before it the estimated cost of moving the flag station, and equipping and furnishing it as a permanent health center. The first $350 was raised on the spot, and Dr. Strobel was authorized to proceed with his plans.

Last summer the flag station was trundled through the town and set up in its new location as the health center. The village street department dug the cellar and removed the dirt as its share of the undertaking. Some firms gave lumber or other material, others labor. The total money cost of the building and installation, including the $125 paid to the railroad and the $50 for moving, came to $1,082.35 and it has all been met. The present nurse who is its staff is entering on her third year of effective service under the direction of the health officer and the simple set of rules which he prepared for the Association. The eleventh of those rules has been put in force only this year.

Behind this simple narrative of fact lies an amount of enterprise and work which can be appreciated by those who have shared in such a community venture.

WITH the appointment of Dr. Arthur H. Ruggles as lecturer in Psychiatry in the School of Medicine and consultant in mental hygiene to the University Health Department, Yale has taken a first step in the program which it proposed some time ago, to develop a Department of Psychiatry as an independent section coordinate with the present four branches of medicine, surgery, pediatrics, and diseases of women. The new department has been made possible by a grant from the General Education Board of $15,000 a year for five years, and the contribution of a like amount by an alumnus. "The inability of our University Health Department to deal promptly with cases of incipient nervous or mental disorders among our students has been most distressing," said President Angell, in commenting on the new department. "Moreover we have been unable to give our medical students and our nurses adequate training in those forms of disease which, in our high-strung American people of today, are in many ways the most sinister from which we suffer. Under the new conditions we shall expect not only to care for these needs but also to render great service in connection with the clinics now conducted by the Mental Hygiene Society in New Haven and Waterbury."

TO WRITE a pleasant lesson on the outside as well as the inside of schoolbooks, the National Tuberculosis Association has had prepared adjustable textbook covers with a picture and a health jingle. The covers may be purchased from the Association; on large orders the name of the local association which buys them for distribution will be printed in.

THREE MILLION school children in the United States—or about one in eight of the whole school population—must reckon with defective eyesight, according to the report recently sent by the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness to every city, state, and county school superintendent in the country, urging the adoption of a uniform law for the examination of the eyes of school children. This report is the result of more than a year's work by the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association, under the chairmanship of Dr. Thomas D. Wood of Columbia University. Only seventeen states at present make the examination of the eyes of school children compulsory by law, and few of these specify closely the portion of the school population to be examined, the frequency with which examinations are to be made, or the personnel of physician, nurse or teacher to make the examination. In fourteen other states the law is permissive. In the regular grades there is approximately one child in five hundred whose sight is so seriously defective that he cannot be educated profitably in the regular classes, and should be enrolled in a sight-saving class. "Conserving the sight of school children," declares the committee, "is fundamentally a duty of the school. The task of conserving the eyesight of children, those with normal eyes and those with defective eyes, requires the intelligent sympathetic cooperation of school authorities, health authorities, physicians, parents of the children themselves, and in many situations of other agencies in the community."

A YEAR AGO the Eye Sight Conservation Council collected and summarized the records of forty companies representing a score of industries and covering more than 200,000 persons. These records listed normal and defective vision according to a wide range of tests—some of which obviously were so superficial as to disclose only very grave defects, yet the totals showed that on an average 44 per cent of the applicants for employment in these industries had defective vision, and 25 per cent had defective vision which was not corrected by glasses. Such statistics as these indicate the reason for the eyesight conservation movement. A survey which tells what it is, summarizing work and legislation in this field has been compiled by Joshua E. Hannun, M. E., and published by the Eye Sight Conservation Council, Times Building, New York city. A special discussion of illumination, and a bibliography and index make this survey readily usable.

MORTALITY STATISTICS for automobile fatalities now can be compared for city and state as can the rates for typhoid and tuberculosis. Figures recently reported by the Department of Commerce for sixty-five cities with a quarter of the country's population show that only sixteen of these reported more automobile fatalities during the first ten months of 1925 than during the corresponding period of 1924. In the number of such deaths per 100,000 of population during 1924 there is a wide variance from city to city. For the whole group the rate averaged 19.2 per 100,000; yet San Antonio, Texas, could report a low point of 11.5, and Des Moines of 11.7, while Pittsburgh with 29.6, Camden with 28.5, and Nashville and Birmingham with approximately 27 each stood at the other end of the scale. New York fell below the average with 16.6; Chicago reported an even 19.

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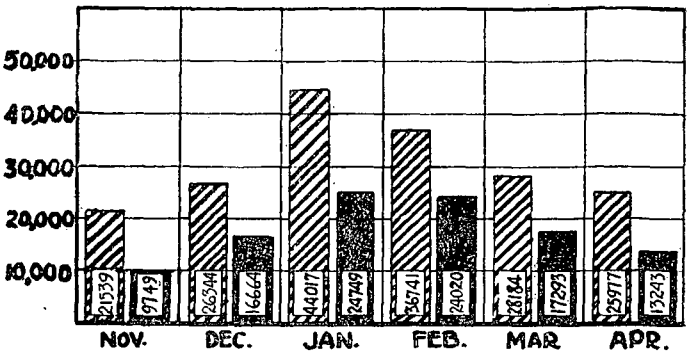
SCHOOL CHILDREN'S ABSENCES DUE TO ILLNESS AND TO ALL OTHER CAUSES
By months from November 1924 to April 1925



From Public Health News, N. J. Dept. of Health

Key: Black—days lost due to illness. Barred—days lost due to all causes. Total: All—182,803. *Ill*—105,718

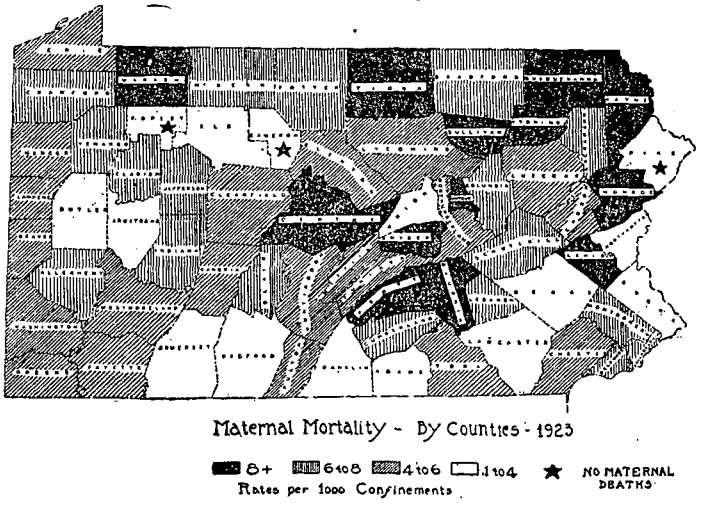
TRENTON, NEW JERSEY, has recently added up for its own benefit the impressive cost of preventable illness in the schools. A study was made of the absences of school children from November, 1924, to April, 1925. During that time 182,803 days were lost by all pupils in the grades from all causes—and of these, 105,718 days, or 58 per cent, were due to avoidable illness. Half of this illness was laid to the common cold and sore throat, about a quarter to contagious diseases, and the remaining quarter to miscellaneous conditions, such as toothache, headache, and indigestion. Aside from the great loss to the city through the furnishing of unused educational accommodations during these days of absence, which cannot readily be estimated, there is a very direct and measurable expense in the lowered allotment of state funds. From these funds Trenton has an appropriation of about eight cents for each child in school each day. The bill for illness for those 105,718 lost days therefore came to more than $8,000, which would have financed a considerable amount of the kind of health work which has been shown to pay dividends. During the school year 1924-5 the teachers of the city lost nearly 4,000 days because of illness; if only financial reasons be considered, the study concludes, it would be a good investment to spend in a teacher's health service some of the funds now devoted to paying substitutes.

DETROIT carries on nutrition classes in the schools under nurses who devote their entire time to this work under the guidance of a Nutrition Director. These classes are made up of children who are 15 per cent or more underweight and who are commended for them by the school physicians after a complete physical examination. Children who have infected tonsils and abscessed teeth must have these conditions corrected before they become eligible. The emphasis in the classes is primarily on the formation of adequate health habits, rather than upon stuffing the child to bring him up to normal weight. Only a small amount of supplemental food is given—a half pint of milk and two graham crackers each morning—and that as a means of creating an interest in the class and stimulating desirable health habits. The results are measured in terms of general health, class work, sleep and home diet, rather than in weight. Yet to test in a general way the adequacy of these nutrition classes the Department decided to compare the number of underweight children in schools in which this instruction was given with those in other schools with no nutrition service, which were carefully chosen to include a closely comparable group of children. The results it declares "quite striking." Sixteen of eighteen schools which had a nutrition service showed a decrease in underweight at the end of the year; in the eighteen similar schools in which there were no classes, eleven showed an increase in underweight children during the same time.

AT LAST month's annual conference of the health officers and public health nurses of Michigan, the two thousand members answered roll call by telling the number of children in their communities who had been immunized against diphtheria. For four years Michigan has laid much emphasis on diphtheria in its official health campaign. There has been a rapidly growing demand for the toxin-anti-toxin which is supplied free by the state. In eight counties more than 18,000 persons had received anti-toxin at the hands of physicians of the state Department of Health, assisted by local physicians. The reports which came in at the conference showed that there are close to 100,000 children in the state who are protected.

IT COST the people of the United States less than one cent a year apiece to finance the work of the federal government for mothers and babies carried on during 1924 and 1925 under the Federal Maternity and Infancy Act. During those two years the states cooperating under the Act (which now include all except Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Maine and Massachusetts) reported that nearly 600,000 babies and young children had been examined at 26,353 conferences; 75,000 women had attended 9,669 pre-natal conferences; 162,000 women had attended mothers' classes and some 40,000 had been enrolled in midwives' classes. During those two years 1706 child health centers were established, and 245 pre-natal centers were opened. Despite a substantial drop in the infant mortality rate in the Registration Area in 1924, it still stands higher than that of Australia, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and the Irish Free State, and no state in the Union has as low a rate as New Zealand. "It is quite evident," declares Grace Abbott, chief of the Children's Bureau, "that the United States cannot afford to slacken its interest or reduce in any way the intelligent expenditure of funds to lower the death rate among babies. It is especially important that the program for the prevention of unnecessary deaths in child birth should be pushed. Here, too, the United States lags behind many countries."

PENNSYLVANIA, casting up its accounts in maternal mortality, discovered recently that the rate for 1923 was precisely the same as that which was registered in 1906—6.1 deaths per thousand births. During the intervening years it fell once to 5.8, and in the influenza year of 1918 in rose to 10.8, but for the most part the record runs along with little change during a period when great gains have been made in other fields of health. During those same years the death rate from tuberculosis was cut from 150 per 100,000 of population to 86; that of typhoid, from 54 to 4.9; diphtheria from 34 to 15; and the infant death rate has been exactly halved. From county to county in 1923 there was a wide divergence in maternal mortality. In general the high rates were not to be found where the foreign population was largest.



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COMMUNITIES

Housing in the City of Homes

THE housing problem in Philadelphia is not a new problem, nor is it entirely a local problem. In suffering from shortage conditions and resulting rise of rent, Philadelphia is perhaps no exception to the rule throughout the country, but there seems to be a strong indication that it has developed into a much more acute condition there than in a great many other cities. Rents in Philadelphia have risen and continue to rise much faster than in most other cities. About a year ago the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics published some very interesting data about the increase in workingmen's rent during the preceding year, March 1923 to March 1924, in nineteen cities. In fourteen of those there has been an increase. The significant thing for Philadelphians was the fact that the increase in this city of homes was the greatest of all the nineteen, nearly 10 per cent in one year (9.8 per cent). Only Boston with 8.7 per cent and Detroit with 7.8 per cent even approximated the Philadelphia level. Probably for Detroit the ready excuse presents itself of rapid growth of the city population. Of the other two largest cities in the country, Chicago showed an increase of only 3.5 per cent and New York 3.2 per cent.

There is no question but that the same situation continued during the last twelve months.

Here in brief is the history of the rise in workingmen's rents in three largest cities since the beginning of the war. The figures show the percentage of increase over rents in December, 1914.

	New York	*Chicago*	*Philadelphia*
Dec. 15	—	—	.3
" 16	—	.7	.7
" 17	2.6	1.4	2.6
" 18	6.5	2.6	8.0
" 19	23.4	14.0	16.7
" 20	38.1	48.9	38.0
" 21	53.7	83.9	48.1
" 22	56.7	88.9	52.9
Mar. 23	58.4	89.1	54.7
June 23	59.4	92.1	58.1
July 23	60.8	92.1	62.4
Dec. 23	62.4	95.4	66.9
Mar. 24	63.5	95.8	69.9
June 24	64.5	104.4	72.4
July 24	65.8	104.2	74.3
Dec. 24	67.1	105.8	75.3

For the entire decade the increase has been greater in Chicago than in Philadelphia, perhaps because Chicago is a much more rapidly growing city. (Increase in population about 2¼ per cent per annum, or 60,000 as against 1¾ per cent or some 30,000 in Philadelphia.)

But it is striking that for the two years, December 1922, to December 1924, rents in New York have increased 5.5 per cent, in Chicago 8.8 per cent and in Philadelphia 14 per cent.

There is no question but that there is a general cause or perhaps many general causes for rent increases throughout the country. One of them is the increased cost of living, or what amounts to the same thing, the fall of the purchasing value of a dollar which must affect rent as well as all other goods or services. A second, more direct reason is the reduction or complete failure of building activities during the war and post-war period to catch up with the housing need. The very fact, however, that in two years the changes in workingmen's rents fluctuated between an increase of 14 per cent in Philadelphia and a reduction of 10 per cent in Norfolk, Virginia, proves that in addition to the general there are very potent local reasons or local differences in the relations between the demand and supply for housing accommodations.

IT is by comparison of Philadelphia with at least the two other largest cities that a considerable light is thrown upon our housing problem. For the three years 1921-23 the investment for construction of residential buildings in these three cities was as follows (Corresponding data for 1924 not being available):

Millions of Dollars

New York	1,228
Chicago	367
Philadelphia	120

Chicago's population is about 50 per cent greater than that of Philadelphia, but the investment for residential buildings was three times as large. The population of New York city is three times that of Philadelphia, but the investment for residential buildings was ten times as large. Even more startling are the figures for the number of families provided.

	New York	*Chicago*	*Philadelphia*
1921	51,360	12,252	2,406
1922	91,164	24,227	10,453
1923	105,672	33,539	8,972
1924	94,485	35,905	11,432
Total	342,681	105,923	33,263

The difference is more than striking, it is palpably alarming. On the same estimate of four persons per family, New York within four years has provided for an increase of 23 per cent of its population, Chicago for 14 per cent and Philadelphia only for 6 per cent. The population increase in New York during those four years was a little over 7 per cent, thus housing facilities for 23 per cent have met a very substantial relief from housing congestion. The population increase in Chicago was a little less than 9 per cent, so that an increase of 14 per cent in housing facilities does offer a substantial margin. The population increase in Philadelphia was 7 per cent, so that actually the new housing facilities, even not considering the demolitions because of various large municipal projects, have not even kept pace with the increase of population, let alone any compensation for the stoppage of building operations during the war period.

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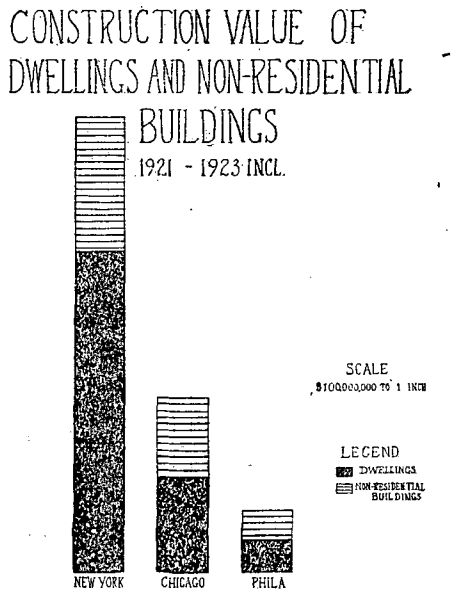

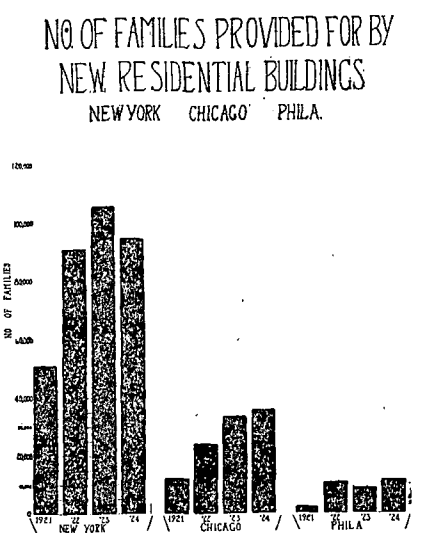

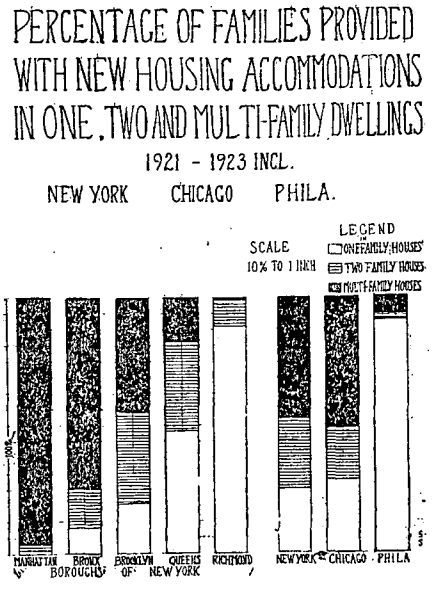

Philadelphia is a "city of homes." This means primarily that Philadelphia is, or is supposed to be, a city of owned dwellings, rather than rented apartments. The demand for living accommodations cannot be converted into an effective demand for purchase of dwellings unless the price is within the means of the prospective purchasers. It is pointed out that the increase in the cost of dwellings has necessarily affected the active demand. The masses must adjust themselves willy-nilly to higher rentals, perhaps by economies in other directions, but they cannot so easily meet the increased cost of purchase of dwellings.

There has, of course, been a very material increase in the cost of construction, not only in Philadelphia but elsewhere. Yet, on the whole, it is probably true that construction is somewhat cheaper in Philadelphia than, for instance, in New York. A comparison of wages in building trades indicates that with the exception of plasterers and lathers, wages in building trades are substantially lower in Philadelphia.

Again, practical builders point out that this comparative cheapness of labor is more than compensated by the higher cost of financing building operations. As to that, exact statistical figures are difficult to obtain. It is, however, significant that while Philadelphia has evidently suffered from shortage of capital for the construction of dwellings, the comparison with New York is very much more favorable in regard to non-residential or business construction.

Here, then is the situation in Philadelphia in a nutshell. Because Philadelphia is a "city of homes," because the building and real estate operator have always put up dwellings for sale rather than for rent, because the cost of construction has increased so that the working masses find themselves unable to purchase new homes, because therefore marketing of low priced dwellings has become more difficult, the construction of such buildings has fallen off very much below the demand for housing accommodations. There are not enough homes in Philadelphia and not enough homes are being built because it is a "city of homes."

IS a home a house? What's the trouble with Philadelphia? To find out why it does not build enough (and as to that—there can be no question), we must learn what it does build in comparison with other metropolitan cities.

On this point very interesting information may be obtained from the same government investigation. We have already shown that New York within a short period of four years has provided living accommodations for 342,000 families as against only 32,000 for Philadelphia, and 106,000 families in Chicago. What sort of accommodations were they? The data for 1924 are not yet available and in the following table only the three years from 1921 to 1923 are covered.

NUMBER OF FAMILIES PROVIDED WITH NEW HOUSING ACCOMMODATIONS

City	*One-Family Dwelling*		*Two-Family Dwelling*		*Multi-Family Dwelling*		*Total* 100%
New York							
Manhattan	159	.6	348	1.4	24,527	98.0	25,034
Bronx	5,530	9.9	8,496	15.2	41,877	74.9	55,903
Brooklyn	17,227	18.7	32,952	35.8	41,980	45.5	92,159
Queens	32,576	48.3	23,560	34.9	11,363	16.8	67,499
Richmond	6,683	87.9	884	11.6	34	.5	7,601
Total for New York	62,175	25.0	66,240	26.7	119,781	48.3	248,196
Chicago	19,274	27.5	15,110	21.6	35,634	50.9	70,018
Philadelphia	19,762	90.1	530	2.4	1,639	7.5	21,931

The difference between these various cities results from the struggle between two types of housing accommodations. At one extreme is the one family dwelling which sometimes in American housing literature monopolizes the word "home," and at the other extreme the apartment, flat or tenement in a "multi-family dwelling." As the figures above show, Philadelphia in its construction policy almost limits itself to the idea of a one family home. Manhattan—at the other extreme—has almost abandoned this type except for a very small number of expensive "residences." Chicago occupies the middle ground, construction of both types being fairly active.

Between those two extremes of a one-family home and an apartment or tenement, there stands the compromise of a two-family house. These are the three predominating types of construction.

Much has been written about the comparative social values, particularly of the danger to the institution of the American home which lurks in the multi-family dwelling, the apartment, tenement or flat. Now the curious thing is that no matter how much ink has been spilled in defense of the private home, it is the apartment house type of construction that has been gaining headway throughout the country.

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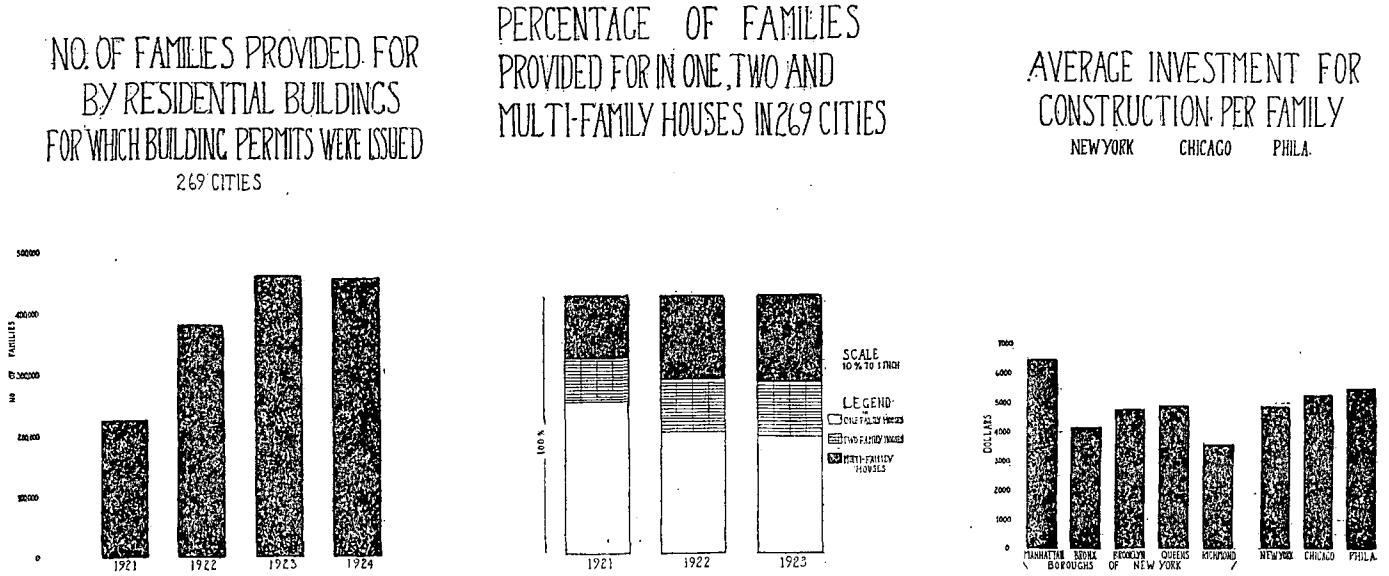

FAMILIES PROVIDED FOR IN 209 CITIES

In	1921	Per cent	1922	Per cent	1923	Per cent
One-family houses	132,774	58.9	183,866	48.3	213,058	46.3
Two-family houses	37,470	16.7	78,284	20.6	95,008	20.7
Multi-family houses	54,894	24.4	118,013	31.1	151,405	33.0
	225,138		380,163		459,471	

These figures are not limited to a few eastern cities infested with foreigners. They cover practically every city with a population of over 25,000. The average number of families per dwelling constructed in 1921 was ten, in 1922—eleven, and in 1923—twelve.

What peculiar reason, what peculiar combination of social and economic conditions outside of custom can explain the total failure in Philadelphia to provide either two-family dwellings or cheap multi-family buildings? For the few multi-family dwellings put up in Philadelphia in the years 1921-23 were largely intended for the "upper classes." They rent at a price which is way beyond the means of a workingman's budget. Practically nothing has been done in Philadelphia to provide the workingman's family with a dwelling which he could rent at a reasonable cost.

FOR many reasons, some obvious, others obscure, Philadelphia is resisting longer than other industrial cities the tendency to elaborate a type of dwelling in which workingmen can find hygienic housing accommodations at a price they are able to pay. If this tenacious adherence to the "American ideal" of a one-family house had actually accomplished its result, much might be said in its favor.

But what are the actual facts? Three or four decades ago, New York developed the "dumb-bell" type of tenement, a five or six-story structure with very poor facilities for light and air. So long as this was the only apparently feasible plan for workingmen's housing, there was little that could be said in favor of multi-family dwellings for workingmen. But under pressure of enlightened public opinion from social workers, and in the natural course of an improved demand, much has been accomplished to improve the type of workingmen's housing. Building standards have been continuously advanced, particularly in regard to providing proper light and air. As a type of construction, the old "dumb-bell" tenement house has been altogether abandoned and in the process of rebuilding the type is slowly disappearing. If a comparison is made at present between a modern multi-family dwelling and a so-called single family home in Philadelphia, usually inhabited by more than one family, the comparison is not at all in favor of the latter. When an ordinary little workingman's home in Philadelphia is converted into a two or three-family home, or when, as even more frequently happens, rooms are subdivided among two or three families without any structural changes, the results are even worse.

Thus, in a local investigation, we found that out of 377 so-called apartments only 81 or about 22 per cent could boast of independent toilets. In 78 per cent the tenants had to share toilet facilities with the landlord or other tenant. In nearly 30 per cent of the homes, the toilets were located in the yard and where the homes are inhabited by more than one family, such a situation is undesirable not only from a hygienic but even from a moral point of view. In one-fourth of the homes, no bathroom at all was found. Of the remaining three-fourths of the homes, more than one-half had joint bathing facilities for more than one family. A separate bathroom was found in only one-half of the houses and in less than one-sixth of the so-called apartments. As far as heating facilities were concerned, only one-half of the homes had central heat and nearly two-thirds of the apartments had to depend upon stoves for heating, without accommodations for storage of coal. Even so essential a requirement as a convenient water supply is frequently absent. For instance, in nearly one-fifth of the apartments water had to be drawn for all purposes from the bathroom.

The workingman's apartment in Philadelphia is not an apartment at all, but only two or three rooms sublet without any necessary adjustment for a separate decent family existence, for it has no private bathing or toilet facilities and very frequently no separate water supply. From a point of view of physical comfort, the cheapest modern workingman's apartment in New York is very much more preferable.

How long can Philadelphia resist this obvious demand for workingmen's dwellings at reasonable rental costs? Can Philadelphia continue to insist that a little independent one-family house is the only proper home in face of the general opinion that such houses cannot be built cheaply enough to be bought or even rented by working people? If the line of reasoning in this study is at all sound, it points the

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way towards the solution through creation of a type of workingmen's dwelling conforming to the essential demands of health and sanitation and to the paying capacity of the working masses. It seems to point the way toward apartments rather than individual houses.

The actual solution will only come with the flow of capital into this field of building activity. But social agencies may serve a very useful purpose through careful experimentation. It has not been the purpose of this study to urge blind imitation of Bronx standards of building. Perhaps the difference in the size of the city, in its location and means of transportation will justify modification of New York standards of workingmen's dwellings, and an adaptation to conditions and needs of this city. But if an experiment is made and proved financially successful, the way may be opened to a solution of this all-important housing problem.

What appears necessary at this moment is a large scale experiment to test the cost of construction and operation of a multi-family dwelling for working families, the rent level at which such a building could be exploited, and the willingness of the workingmen of Philadelphia to make use of such a building.

I. M. RUBINOW

In Search of Farm Facts

I. In the States

FEW people not connected with state colleges of agriculture or the United States Department of Agriculture realize that the major portion of research that has been carried on in the last thirty-five years in the field of agriculture has been done by federal subsidy. This body of research has been tremendous in magnitude and very diverse in nature. Until very recently, however, it has been practically altogether in the field of technical production; soils, plant and animal breeding, plant and animal diseases, nutrition, etc. The Purnell Act (H. B. No. 2243, Sixty-seventh Congress, first session) makes specific provision for the widening of the scope of research to include agricultural economics, rural sociology and home economics. It also opens the way for greatly expanding research in all lines of agricultural research including the three new fields just mentioned and all phases of technical production.

The two chief sources of funds for research in agriculture have in the past been the Hatch and Adams funds—$30,000 per year—to each state, to be administered through the state agricultural experiment stations, and such funds as the United States Department of Agriculture set aside for research work by its various bureaus. One of the bureaus is that of Agricultural Economics which has carried on researches in land economics, taxations and credits, farm management, marketing of farm products, etc. and for the past seven years in population and rural sociology.

Almost all of the research thus far in rural sociology has been done by means of funds furnished by the Division of Farm Population and Rural Life Studies of the United States Department of Agriculture, headed by C. J. Galpin, formerly professor of rural sociology at the University of Wisconsin. The funds of this division have been meager and the funds available from the state agriculture experiment stations to match those from Mr. Galpin's office in cooperative research have been yet more meager. This has been true for two reasons: because sociology has only recently been placed on a plane approaching research and because all of the Hatch-Adams funds have been absorbed in researches in the fields of technical production. While researches in plant breeding or animal feeding have used thousands of dollars those in rural sociology have been restricted to a very few hundred dollars. Only a few of the state stations have carried on research in rural sociology at all.

The new law, passed in the spring of 1925, made provisions for appropriating to each state agricultural experiment station $20,000 for the year ending June 30, 1926; $30,000 for the year ending June 30, 1927, and so on, increasing $10,000 each year until 1929 when the appropriation reaches $60,000 to each station. It provided for research in production as well as research in the three social science fields emphasized in the report of the President's Agricultural Commission and the congressional hearings on the bill. The commission reported that it conceived the field of investigation in rural social organization as the study of those rural institutions, organizations and relationships whose progressive adaptation and integration make possible the maintenance of an adequate rural life. It seemed that the field was fairly wide open for the development of research in rural social science, particularly since the chief emphasis which had secured the passage of the Act had been so dominantly on these subjects.

Only twelve of the state agricultural experiment stations, I find on investigation, have made provision in their 1925-1926 research programs for research in rural sociology. Three more indicate that they contemplate the pursuit of such projects next year. The others state or leave to be inferred that they expect to expend their new funds to supplement those already going into production research. Some of them expect to start or expand research in agricultural economics. The question whether the stations which are making no provision for research in agricultural economics, rural sociology or home economics are administering the Purnell funds in keeping with the spirit of the Act and the influences which secured passage of the Act is not altogether unwarranted.

The four chief reasons given by those directors of state experiment stations who are not putting a portion of their Purnell funds into social researches are these:

The need for further funds in production researches is urgent.
Social research is too broad, complex or difficult of accomplishment.
The sociologists have evolved no technique for carrying on research.
The station has no personnel for carrying on such studies or at least no adequately trained personnel.

Very clearly the two outstanding difficulties of getting the elaborate body of facts which is needed in the field of rural sociology and which was sought and contemplated by the passage of the Purnell bill are the opening of the eyes of state agricultural experiment station directors to the significance of the social aspects of agriculture and the development of some analytical methods and trained research workers in rural sociology. Of these two the first promises to be the greater difficulty. For to solve it would open quickly the way for the solution of the second—would furnish the rural sociologists an opportunity to work at the job of developing methods and open a field of professional service for which men are willing to train themselves.

CARL C. TAYLOR

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II. In the Federal Service

THE passage of the Purnell Act is the culmination of several years of study and effort in the direction of "such economic and sociological investigations as have for their purpose the development and improvement of the rural home and rural life." The success and prosperity of the farm as such had long been the subject of study, investigation, aid, and advice but the success and happiness of the rural home and the farm family as such in spite of certain efforts in its direction seemed a rather neglected subject.

For some years the growing popularity of courses in rural sociology has been a significant indication of the broad national interest in the progress of American rural life as a whole. Six hundred American educational institutions—universities, colleges, theological seminaries, and normal schools—gave severally one or more courses last year on this subject. Forty of the forty-eight state colleges of agriculture were among the six hundred. Fifteen of the forty state colleges employed instructors to teach rural sociology full time. Ten years ago not more than twenty of these six hundred institutions gave any course touching on the social or human side of farm life.

"This amazingly rapid growth in the demand for instruction in the fundamental aspects of rural society created a correspondingly urgent demand for facts to teach," said C. J. Galpin, of the United States Department of Agriculture, some two years ago. He had already reshaped his Division of Rural Population and Farm Life to meet this demand.

> This division [he said] aims to furnish a body of trustworthy facts of a basic character to these institutions for their instruction in rural life, rural institutions, and rural development. This division has followed the policy of making its studies known to these instructors and supplying them information.

In the absence of any other national agency for research upon the social facts of farm population and rural life, Mr. Galpin felt that a heavy responsibility rested upon this division to make its basic researches wide enough to meet the demand and every effort was made to meet it. During the past year, ten states began cooperative research studies of human rural problems with this division.

Prior to this new awakening of interest in these studies and research, Mr. Galpin believed that the establishment of a basic concept of "farm population" was necessary as a scientific basis before rural social studies could be fully admitted into the ranks of scientific studies.

His first move towards this end was to bring about the substitution of the definite term "farm population" for the old, loose term of "rural population" which included persons living in small towns and suburbs. This new term was used in the last census and is gradually coming into general use among students. [See The Survey, May 15, 1924.] The Bureau of the Census was persuaded to include new questions pertaining strictly to farms in their ten-year and five-year censuses and this detailed information for eight representative counties in widely separated regions was worked up and published in full.

Living conditions of representative groups of farm people have been studied and special attention has been given to farm tenants—a class that had long been neglected as a group. In other studies comparative data on conditions among owner and tenant families in the same localities have been secured and published.

A general movement for a consolidation of schools and rural churches is well under way and Mr. Galpin and the workers in his division are not content merely to watch it. In cooperation with the states involved they have made detailed studies of rural institutions in Arkansas, Texas, and Virginia. Moreover, a bird's-eye study of good rural planning throughout the country has been made and publications have been issued, built on actual encouraging examples drawn from widely separated regions, of rural community houses, rural recreation places, and rural hospitals.

The relationship between town and country has been studied from different angles in cooperation with Louisiana, Minnesota, and Wisconsin. More equitable distribution of taxation is receiving attention. This division has pointed out that the farm population rears and educates a much greater number of children than a corresponding city population, that there is a constant movement of young people toward the city, and that this is a subject which might well receive attention in formulating taxation policies.

Then studies were begun of movements of population in selected localities in the Middle West. Methods are being worked out with a view eventually to determining and charting annually the movement to and from the farm. It is believed that this movement is an index of the economic condition of agriculture and to a measure, at least, rural social welfare is dependent on rural prosperity.

Just how far the social life of the farm family is dependent upon the income of the family, the Division of Farm Population is attempting to discover. As a result of his research and thinking, E. L. Kirkpatrick has made measurable progress in clearing the way and building the foundation for an analysis of the relationship between ability to pay and the standard of living among farmers. He has conducted detailed studies of the standard of living in selected rural localities in states, in cooperation with institutions within those states. The results have been analyzed and tabulated and they present a new supply of data for further use by students of rural human problems in many different ways.

To procure through thorough and scientific research and to make available to all who will make further use of it a body of reliable basic and statistical data regarding our farm population and their living conditions, and to assist the various state and other agencies in planning and carrying out effective research and educational programs covering local country life problems has been the constant aim and the consistent endeavor of this pioneering Division of Rural Population.

CAROLINE B. SHERMAN

DANCING in Pittsburgh dance-halls is hard on the feet—"often more than half of the patrons are unable to be seated at any one time"—but that's the least of the hazards it involves, according to a study made recently under the auspices of the Pittsburgh Girls' Conference and published over the name of Collis A. Stocking. The "closed hall" plays little part in the Pittsburgh situation; otherwise the range of enjoyment and vicious accompaniments to be found was much like that discovered by similar investigations elsewhere [see This Business of Dancing, The Survey, July 15, 1924]. Licenses are issued by the mayor's office with the concurrence of the city departments of health, safety and police. Though a few applications are refused and still fewer licenses are revoked, supervision is for the most part left to the individual proprietor,

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sometimes with the assistance of police on duty, sometimes without. At one hall the investigator thought that "the three husky policemen would probably have discouraged murder" but intimates that they weren't greatly interested in lesser offenses. Other much worse places were exploiting both prostitution and drunkenness. As usual, ephemeral "social clubs" were holding loosely controlled dances here and there. Whether dancing was really play anywhere in these halls is left somewhat to the imagination, but the observer raises the question whether the enjoyment they offered was mostly "vicarious delight born of illusion."

HOWEVER discouraging the title Plays About Social Problems may be, those who attended the national conferences at Toronto or Denver know that Mrs. Wembridge with The First of May and George S. Brooks with No Cause for Complaint did succeed in capturing dramatic interest and "social implications" with the same script. The Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work, 130 East 22 Street, New York, has now issued a list of eight short plays, including these two prize-winners, which are suitable for presentation by what are euphemistically known as "social or educational" groups, describing each of them and noting the very modest terms on which performance rights can be secured.

OUT of the confusion which has attended the gathering of community chest statistics the methodical work of the American Association for Community Organization, of which the National Information Bureau has been acting as secretary, is bringing a definitive statement which makes it now possible to judge of the actual bulk of the funds which are raised by community joint financing. The Association's Bulletin No. 18, dated October 30, shows that the total amounts raised by listed community chests for the year ending May 31 last came to $55,500,000, as compared with $39,468,214 for the year ending May 31, 1923, and $48,863,366 for 1924. Last May the chests for which this total was reported were 206 in number. Of the urban population—in cities of over 30,000, 66 per cent is now living in community chest cities. Of the total population, 22 per cent may be so classified. There are 61 towns of less than 30,000 where local philanthropic work is financed by joint solicitation. The cities of more than 100,000 where community chests are not in operation are New York, Chicago, Boston, Washington, Pittsburgh, Jersey City, Providence, Paterson, Fall River, Trenton, Salt Lake City, Camden, Wilmington, Cambridge and Yonkers.

WHILE Congressional committees and their highly articulate advisers wrangle about the supertax the question of the relative responsibility of the rich and less-rich and the not-rich-at-all to support the activities of government remains, as a matter of practice, unsettled. The similar question in respect to philanthropic giving is even more vaguely answered in current opinion. The tithe has lost its significance in a civilization where enormous inequalities in income are the outstanding economic fact. The Community Fund of Detroit, being besieged for suggestions as to a reasonable scale of giving, has overcome its reluctance to give advice in this delicate matter and has this fall offered a tentative schedule of minimum allotments. Using net income after deducting the federal income tax, it is suggested that those with incomes up to $5000 may give not less than one-half of 1 per cent; those from $5,000 to $7,000, 1 per cent; those up to $10,000, 2 per cent; to $20,000, 3 per cent; to $30,000, 4 per cent; and those with larger incomes "on a scale that grades proportionately upwards." This sort of tabulation may be interpreted, for the individual, in terms of Lilian Brandt's "pragmatic formula" (How Much Shall I Give? Frontier Press, 1921) "A man can afford, and ought, to contribute to philanthropic purposes such a part of his income as his informed intelligence, guided by a sincere concern for the common welfare, dictates; and this amount he can afford, and ought, to give, "even though he be the poorest man in Israel."

THE TENDENCY toward "concentration of girls in cities" was noted in The Survey for March 15, 1925 in a brief mention of the statistical analysis of city populations by Father Edward Roberts Moore, director of the division of social action of the Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of New York. Taking this evidence as to the presence of large numbers of girls presumably living away from their parents, the National Council of Catholic Women has issued in its Service Series A Study of the Housing of Employed Women and Girls. Three types of service to such girls are briefly reviewed: accommodations for transients, room registries and boarding homes. The experience and standards of the Y. W. C. A., the New York Association to promote Proper Housing for Girls, and a number of Catholic agencies are summarized and compared. Among the seventy Catholic boarding homes which reported as to their practice it is interesting to note that there were two which bravely refused to place a limitation on the goings and comings of their residents and set no "closing hour." Forty-seven, however, required their tenants to be "in" by 11 p. m. or before. A sound policy is recommended as a guide to the fixing of charges: "In the existing order there are some girls who do not receive wage enough for a comfortable living but a boarding home should not perpetuate such conditions by providing through charity the supplementation of the wage."

WHEN Ross Sanderson wrote of the social opportunities of church federations in The Survey for May 15, 1925 he said "St. Louis has set the pace for all Protestantism in appointing George B. Mangold as social service secretary of its Church Federation." From Mr. Mangold's office, the Board of Religious Organizations of St. Louis, there has recently come a pamphlet called The Challenge of Our City which according to its foreword presents "an analysis of social subjects of importance to the citizens of St. Louis . . . . prepared for use by clubs and study groups desirous of knowing our city and of serving it more effectively." Study groups will find abundant statistical material about the city; some generalizations which should provoke detailed inquiry; and a bewildering array of suggestions for individual and group activity. Here is seed for scattering broadcast; if profitable furrows are intensively tilled as well St. Louis religious bodies should yield abundant volunteer service for productive social enterprises.

LIKE other new movements, the community chests have found the demand for personnel far outrunning the supply, and have drawn their executives from a great variety of sources. Chests that were set up merely as business men's conveniences have naturally looked to the sort of worker who got his training in commercial organization work. A good money raiser has often been at a premium without reference to his year-round wearing qualities. It is significant therefore that the new appointments to chest secretaryships of which the American Association for Community Organization has record are practically all of men and women who have had executive experience in social agencies. This fall O. C. Pickrell has gone from the Baltimore Tuberculosis Association to the Jacksonville chest; Arthur Guild from the Toledo Social Service Federation to Richmond, Va.; Allan Johnston from the Baltimore Criminal Justice Commission to the Baltimore chest; C. H. Alspach from the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania to Reading, Pa.; John Dawson from the Organized Charities Association of New Haven to the chest in the same city; Charlotte Whiting from the Richmond Council of Social Agencies to Holyoke, Mass.; F. E. R. Miller from the Playground and Recreation Association of Knoxville to the chest in the same city; and Charles O. Lee from the Flanner House Settlement, Indianapolis, to the chest in Tulsa.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Osmosis: The Object of Social Work

THE name *social work* is significant. You no longer refer to your calling as one of philanthrophy nor of charity nor of altruism nor of mutual aid. You speak of a type of *work,* as though you were engaged in a sort of engineering, a constructive task, something more than a social repair shop, something different from reconstruction or re-education. The profession of the social worker is different from that of the physician in this respect. The human body is an organism, and if any part of the human body is out of tune with the rest the need is for something in the nature of cure or repair. But the social body is not an organism in any complete sense, and if a part of it is out of tune with the rest it is not entirely certain that the part is wrong and the rest right. The need is for something in the nature of widely considerate constructive thought and action.

In the name *social work* there is implied the intention to express good will in action rather than in words. It carries with it a discounting of all talk and a recognition of the physical basis of life. Social work begins with the concrete. Pressing physical needs must be relieved. If health is lacking the body must be restored. It has a satisfaction in common with that which many found in "war-work" where the physical needs are so immense that there is no hesitation of the will as to the direction it must take. In this primary physical object of social work there is expressed another attitude which is typically American—the pragmatic spirit. We believe that when the machine is working perfectly the thoughts which accompany that activity are likely to be sound. We set the man on his feet by putting him where he works well. Successful action changes the unhappy into the hopeful mentality. As Whiting Williams puts it, "We live our way into our thinking more than we think our way into our living."

This practical attitude is the basis of social work. Is it sufficient? If it were it might be carried out automatically and perhaps better by machinery than by men. We do not believe this. We say that personality counts in social work. But why? There are two reasons.

FIRST, because the difficulties with which social workers have to deal are only half material. Few people are the victims of mere misfortune. Almost always they are victims also of imperfect ideas. We might say that the subjects of social work are very largely those who are *unconvinced* by the ideas upon which our social order rests. Every civilization is built upon a set of beliefs. It depends upon convincing its members that it affords them a way of happiness, that it can interpret to them what they want. Men's lives are governed by their beliefs, and among them beliefs about their own desires. They do not originally know what they want. But they cannot find their place in a society unless they are convinced that it knows what they want. The criminal, as an extreme case of social misfit, is the thoroughly unconvinced individual. He finds his pleasure in a mode of life which certainly has a gamut of excitement and therewith a certain greatness not discoverable in the tame round of ordinary existence. There are others who likewise unconvinced suffer from a simple lack of motivation. They find nothing which commands the devotion of their whole will. They lack ambition. They suffer as a certain urchin was suffering who was kept after school by his teacher. Thinking to appeal to his ambition he was asked what he wanted to be when he grew up. His answer was: "Nothin'. What's the use? It's just work and work and work and then die." This was probably a dramatic and borrowed pessimism, but there are those to whom such a lack of ambition is real. Nietzsche and Jesus were right. It is the desires, the values of men, that require to be revalued, energized and directed.

A SECOND reason why physical relief is not sufficient is because, taken alone, it is not a certain good. Every social worker recognizes the doubtful value of material help. The dangers of altruism are an old story. "Doing good" is something which certainly helps the giver and which may hurt the receiver. A recent writer has expressed these well known difficulties in pungent language. I will take the liberty of quoting some phrases from Count von Keyserling's Travel Diary of a Philosopher:

> Altruism is not worth a farthing more than egoism; in fact it can be more corrupting in so far as it purchases the gain of the man who practises it at the expense of the disadvantage of many others. It is hardly possible to benefit another person without encouraging him in his selfishness; for such a man perceives that his selfish wishes are taken seriously, and this influence is corrupting. It makes him think first of all of his personal happiness, it makes it more difficult for him to become free, and everything depends on liberation alone. . . . One can be truly of use to others only by giving them an example. . . . And the Yogi who is beyond all earthly fetters, beyond labor and work, beyond egoism and altruism, beyond inclination and disinclination, presents the highest example of all. For this reason, his existence among men is more valuable than the life of the most useful of workers.
>
> All eternal values have reference to Being, not to Performance; performance possesses real significance only in so far as it substantiates Being. The Westerners live for their work; with the result that their performances probably outstrip everything which has ever been done on earth; life, however, is the loser as never before. The more I see of the East, the more unimportant the type of the Westerner seems to me. He has abdicated his life in favor of a means to it—work.
>
> Good actions benefit essentially only ourselves, not others. Anyone who imagines that he is doing Goodness-knows-what in satisfying some sufferer professes that material well-being is the main essential.

These are candid and drastic words, and yet they do not touch the chief difficulty of benevolent action, which is that it tends to rob the receiver of his highest right, namely,

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the right to give. So far as one is a receiver one is not a giver, and to be a man is to be in the position of capacity to give. The main task of social work is to restore this human attitude of power rather than dependency. Is Keyserling then right in his criticism of the worker, particularly of the operator in social welfare?

No doubt we are dealing with a paradox, and Keyserling has seen a part of the truth, but certainly not the whole of the truth. The solution of the difficulty seems to me to have been indicated long ago in the attitude of the Founder of Christianity toward material aid. He insisted on being free from material anxiety for ourselves. He insisted equally upon attention to the material wants of others. They were to be fed if they were hungry, clothed if they were naked, ministered unto if they were sick or in prison. The giving of a cup of cold water was celebrated as a worthy act. And surely all of these are acts of attention to the physical man. But there was one addition to the requirement which has commonly been overlooked because of our lack of insight into its meaning. The cup of cold water was to be given "in the name" of something. What is the meaning of this mysterious phrase? Perhaps we can take a clue from those who have the capacity of receiving benefit and receiving it unhurt. Children are necessarily habitual receivers. All of us are receivers of benefit from nature, from society, and from our predecessors, and all this natural receiving is attended with no very pronounced sense of dependence or even of gratitude. It is what we might denominate "natural receiving." It is natural because we find that the sources from whom we receive find a portion of their life in the act of transmission and that they transmit with their material gifts their own sources of happiness, in brief their philosophy. They give in the name of whatever they have found best in the world, so that giving becomes a rite in which gratitude is dissolved in mutual joy.

IT is an ancient saying, "With all thy getting get understanding." For the social worker perhaps this might be stated from the observe side, "With all thy giving give understanding." If this is the fundamental aim of social work might it not be regarded as an essay in education?

I believe that a great deal of education actually takes place through social work, and I once was ready to use the word education as a name for its essential aim. But I no longer think that this word is sufficient. For it would seem to require on the part of the social worker a superhuman wisdom, since the persons with whom he is dealing are those who have baffled the social resources for convincing, that is to say, the acquired wisdom of the race: they include certainly some of the oddest, the most original of mankind. It would follow from this view that no one has a right to do any social work unless he has solved the problems of the universe. I think that most social workers would agree that a large part of the allurement of their task lies not in what they have to teach but in what they have to learn. They desire to become acquainted with their own social order on its defective side, and to appreciate the dark thoughts of unhappy men. It is not even the mission of the social worker to come to an economic crisis with a prepared remedy. For the difficulty may lie deep in the structure of the community, and he cannot afford to take the attitude of one who cries social peace when there is no peace. He does not come with a radical remedy but he comes with the desire to feel at first hand what those conditions are which demand radical remedies and so to take the first step in discovering them.

He does not come therefore exclusively to teach, but he would not have any right in social work unless for himself he had found in life a source of satisfaction, unless he had won his own freedom in the universe, and unless he were prepared to communicate that philosophy not so much in the form of definite propositions as through the silent interchange of personal attitude. It is for this reason that I use the term *osmosis,* which implies the silent transmission of substance across barriers. This exchange of belief which brings about a new equilibrium in the small community of two is the main object of social work. If we wish to enlarge the meaning of a common word we might say, the object of social work is material aid "in the name of" conversation—the imparting and receiving of faith.

WILLIAM ERNEST HOCKING

Toward Professional Social Work

TWO questions confront the profession of social work today which are more vital than any others. The first is how and where to secure new recruits to replenish the gaps and to man the extending field. The second is what standards are to prevail within the profession.

At the 1924 session of the Ohio Welfare Conference it was voted to appoint a permanent committee of the Conference to be known as the Committee on Recruiting and Education for Social Work, which should undertake to face squarely these problems within the state. In October the committee presented to the State Conference its findings as a result of a year's work, some of which will perhaps be of general significance for social work as a whole.

The first step in the committee study was to ascertain if possible the status of the social workers of Ohio in so far as their preparation was concerned, and to obtain the attitude of all the various agencies of the state on that question. Replies were received from 104 leading agencies. While the number of replies is too small to have statistical value, it is large enough to give a cross section which throws light upon a number of matters. Since the report specifically excluded office clerks, stenographers and voluntary workers, the figures given will be understood to apply only to those regularly employed in administrative or service work. The leading deductions made from the study were the following:

A large proportion of social workers are in the work as a permanent thing and not, as has sometimes been feared, as a mere time filler. Out of 557 Ohio social workers covered in the report, 242 or 43 per cent have been in their present positions over three years; 131 or 23 per cent over five years. This suggests that serious as is the question of turn-over, the field of social work has a substantial body of permanent people.

Again: those who care to make it such need have no question as to whether or not social work is a life-time calling. Out of 62 agencies replying, 48 have one or more workers that are over forty years old and in 24 agencies there are workers of fifty or more. The majority which replied expressed the opinion that 50 years need not be regarded as too great an age for this occupation and a dozen agencies indicated sixty years as acceptable.

As to the age of entering social work, the indications are that maturity is sought. Out of 58 agencies replying, only six employed workers under twenty-one years of age, whereas

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48 of the 58 have no staff workers under twenty-three. Twenty-three agencies stated that twenty-five years should be the minimum entrance age, whereas only seven felt that people between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one had any place in social work at all. It is clearly the sentiment of these agencies that social workers are expected to possess a degree of maturity. Instead of trying to break in while still in their teens as many a high-school girl desires to do, they should await a greater maturity and should be preferably spending the time in preparing for the work itself.

The general educational level of Ohio social workers does not make a flattering showing. Of sixty-six agencies replying, twenty-three have people on their staff with only a grammar school course. Twenty-five others reported employing workers with only a high school education. Only four of the entire sixty-six had no one on the staff who was not a college graduate and yet only two agencies stated that they regarded a grammar school as an acceptable foundation. Thirty-four said that they would like to require at least four years of high school. Nineteen declared for a full four years college course and nine others felt that at least a partial college course should be required.

The showing as to professional education in the field was naturally still poorer. Of 364 workers reported, only eighty-four have had two years of professional training, fifty-five of whom have a diploma or certificate in social work. Ninety have had seven to twelve months training, forty from one to six months; ninety-five of the group are reported as having none, to say nothing of the several hundreds for which no report was made. And yet the majority of agencies which take note of this point recommend a full course of professional training as a minimum standard for incoming workers. In actual practice, however, not only is professional education not required, but only twenty-nine state that previous experience is required before joining their staff. Eleven of these say it should be experience "through several years."

As to health requirements, the majority of the agencies are silent. Six state they require a certificate of health; nine that periodic physical examiantions are required; and one requires both. The majority of those that are silent on this point, do not make either one a requirement.

Upon the basis of this study, the Ohio Conference adopted the following standards which represent a goal toward which to work in the placement of newcomers taken into social work positions:

Health. A physical examination revealing physical fitness should be required of every new appointee upon entrance into a new position, and periodically thereafter.

Age. While there are some positions of minor responsibility to which a person may be admitted as young as twenty-one years, save in exceptional instances one should not be admitted to work involving direct personal counsel under the age of twenty-three years. For the more delicate and difficult phases of case work, twenty-five years should be the minimum.

General Education. No one should be admitted to social work who is not possessed of at least a full high school education, save in exceptional instances. As rapidly as possible, college work should be required until ultimately no one should be admitted to the more responsible phases of work who has not had a full four years college course. Not only should this amount of college education be required, but increasingly it should be specified that psychology, sociology, economics, and civics should be included by way of foundation for the various responsibilities that come.

Professional Education. In addition to the general educational standards indicated, the Conference urges that those aspiring to make social work their vocation should also take adequate professional preparation for the field. This is a repetition and a re-emphasis of a similar position taken by this Conference in 1924.

Extensive inquires reveal the weakness in regard to recruiting which are common elsewhere, and which are characteristic of various other callings than social work. Perhaps the most outstanding deficiencies grow out of lack of any unified and systematic recruiting plan. The most obvious defects seem to be: The failure to cover the probable sources of material; haphazard and unorganized approach to that part of the field which is covered; and the absence of a unified plan of following up interested prospects, in particular the lack of a method of visualizing and making clear to the enquirer the nature of the work.

Only one division of work in Ohio, the Ohio Council on Family Social Work, has an organized plan of recruiting. Therefore whatever recruiting is done sporadically is liable to competition and over-lapping and the prospect himself is confronted with the question of entering the particular division of social work which happens to be presented to him before he has a chance to pass judgment upon the general field of social work as a whole. Most of these difficulties would be reduced if there were a regular secretary recruiting for the state, who would give time, thought, and energy to the general program.

The best sources for new material are probably the following: *Recently graduated college alumni* not yet definitely entered upon a life work. Cleveland has a plan for interesting students of the various alumni organizations of the city. *College students still in course,* especially the upperclassmen who are trying to decide upon a life calling. *High school students.* No effort should be made to persuade high school graduates to come into social work directly from high school but it is entirely possible to interest them in such a way that they may have it in mind and be ready to make the proper preparation for taking it up when they are sufficiently mature. *Professional folk from other fields* (teaching, the ministry, etc.) who spontaneously decide to change to this field. Great care should be exercised, however, that proselyting is not practiced. Community well-being will not be furthered by the mere transference of a person from one field to another; and strong social work in a community is improbable if the allied altruistic callings are not strong also.

A unanimous desire was indicated for some plan of systematic dealing with this question and the following recommendations were adopted by the Conference as a guide to further procedure:

That the Conference look toward the eventual appointment of an employed recruiting officer for the state who will be charged with the responsibility of carrying on the general recruiting program. Since this is not an immediate possibility, the Conference will for the present:

Make an effort to secure from the faculty of each liberal arts college in the state one interested person who will accept the responsibility of acting as the representative of the State Conference on his own campus. This person should be one sufficiently interested to plan for the visit of some social work representative who shall present to students who are interested, the vocational opportunities of this profession.

There should be secured from the various agencies of the state a number of competent persons who will be available to visit the various colleges of his district upon the invitation of the campus representative, to address the students upon this subject and to confer with those individually who desire it.

A card index of all interested students shall be kept at a central office to afford the basis for organized follow-up work. In particular, the several schools of social work in the state are to be advised in order that they may bring their opportunities for training in social work to the attention of the students.

A concrete step in the direction of arousing student interest has been taken in the informal establishment of a "Students' Day" during the State Conference. This has been in effect for two years and some results are already

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apparent. All the colleges of Ohio are invited to send faculty and student representatives to the Conference on this day, whose special feature is a student luncheon. At this luncheon some competent person presents the opportunities for social work as a life calling. Following the luncheon, the students who desire it are assigned to individual conferences with selected interviewers who take up the matter with them in detail.

At the 1925 Conference, just held, eight colleges were represented by a total attendance of sixty-five students and faculty.

EARLE EDWARD EUBANK

A University in Social Work

IN the William T. Carter Child Helping Foundation, put into operation just a year ago, The University of Pennsylvania provides another instance of the increasing tendency of universities to reach over their own walls and join hands with the community outside. This Foundation takes the place of the William T. Carter Junior Republic, which its donor maintained for twenty-five years at Redington, Pa. Convinced that "the problem of helping children is essentially an educational one, the solution of which is to be found in the educating of parents and teachers to the necessity and in the methods of reaching the individual child," Mrs. Carter decided to relinquish this institution, which she had established in memory of her husband, and instead to establish the Foundation which is administered by the University of Pennsylvania through the medium of a professorship in Child Helping.

That professorship, which came into being a year ago with the appointment of James S. Heberling as its incumbent, is considered "an endowment of personal service." In place of a list of formal courses, its program shows a statement of nine "fields of service," only one of which is concerned exclusively with college students and their training for leadership in work with children and for parenthood. The rest include talks before outside groups, such as parent-teacher associations, teachers' institutes, men's and women's clubs; child guidance in cooperation with the Psychological Clinic at the University; the counseling of boys of high school age on vocational and other problems by appointment following addresses before school and other groups; offering to parents, guardians and institutional officials, through personal interviews and otherwise, counsel and assistance in the problems of individual children and cooperation with social work agencies, schools and institutions in connection with their various problems relating to children.

"As a free lance the department is permitted to find its own path of greatest usefulness," writes Professor Heberling, "a generous attitude on the part of the trustees of the University who have so broadly interpreted the functions of a university in its public service to the community. At present it seems best to emphasize the extramural activities and only to offer courses to undergraduates that will not curtail the extension program. . . . There are departments of child study and research in several universities, as those of Columbia and the University of Iowa. The course in boy guidance at Notre Dame University is attracting national attention. In its varied program with the emphasis laid on the education of parents and teachers and in its counseling activities we believe that the work at the University of Pennsylvania is unique in education.

"The requests for lectures and counsel, state-wide and outside the state, the increasing number of office appointments for consultation with parents, teachers, and with children themselves, and the many official contacts established with city, state and national associations interested in child helping have convinced the University and the friends of Mrs. Carter that her endowment of this professorship has been a real benefaction to the cause of public education."

AN IMPRESSIVE RECORD of accomplishment in a new field is the Directory of Psychiatric Clinics for Children recently published by the Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency and to be obtained from its office, 50 East 42 Street, New York city, for fifty cents. The directory is based on a questionnaire circulated by the committee, and contains the material supplied by each of the clinics as to its aims, personnel, hours, and so on. New editions will be prepared as the demand warrants to keep the material up to date. In gathering the material the committee became aware of certain clear trends in psychiatric work for children, defined by Graham Romeyn Taylor in the foreword, as "the establishment in increasing numbers of child guidance clinics not primarily for delinquent children but for all children in need of study; the rapid growth of habit clinics for the preschool child; the development by state departments, of traveling clinic service; the introduction, by boards of education, of psychiatric service for school children."

FOR THOSE who are gazing at psychiatry from the social work side there is a comprehensive pamphlet on Vocational Aspects of Psychiatric Social Work, prepared by the Section on Psychiatric Social Work of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers, edited by Porter R. Lee, and published and sold by the American Association of Social Workers at 130 East 22 Street, New York city, as the first of a Vocational Series. The pamphlet deals with such concrete matters as positions, salaries, and professional outlook, and describes the various kinds of work included under the general category. A bibliography is appended. In the opinion of the committee responsible for the study, "The individual who desires to make her work a continuation of her education, who is interested both in human beings in action and in scientific discoveries and experimentation, who wishes opportunities for leadership and for intelligent service in the development of personalities and in social welfare, will find many such opportunities in psychiatric social work."

FROM VIRGINIA comes word that Albermarle County has decided to close its almshouse and obtain care for the remaining inmates in private homes and hospitals. The reasons for this action include the decline of the population, the excessive overhead expense, the lack of proper medical care and attention, and the general cost of the almshouse. County homes of this type have been discontinued in about twenty-five Virginia counties, according to the state Board of Welfare. A recently published federal study (The Cost of American Almshouses, by Estelle M. Stewart, Bulletin No. 386 of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics) gives a detailed picture of the excessive cost and wastefulness of many small almshouses. An investment of about more than a million dollars of public money lies unproductive in unused almshouse property. While figures vary widely from state to state, totals show that the average inmate of an almshouse is maintained at a cost of $334 a year in an institution whose per capita valuation is $1,752 for buildings, land and equipment.

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INDUSTRY

A Strike Against Strikes

ON November 6 in a room in the Vanderbilt Hotel, New York, six men met to draft an agreement ending a strike that had lasted nineteen weeks, had cost the contestants upwards of two million dollars and in which three men had been shot, one of them fatally. This strike is entered in the records of the men's clothing industry as the bitterest and most determined ever waged between a single employer and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America. There are manufacturers within the industry who agree with the union executives that its settlement marks a crucial turning point in the evolution of industrial relations not only in the men's clothing industry but also, perhaps, in American industry in general.

Certainly there are elements in the record which invite the scrutiny of all of us who believe that the future of our great American experiment in political democracy will turn upon the capacity of industrial leaders, representatives of management and men, to make the principles of constitutional democracy effective in the conduct of industrial government. That this is not a far-fetched belief, everyone who has followed the recent political and industrial history of Italy and Russia especially, will appreciate. Those countries in their different ways have discarded parliamentary democratic government. The recent demonstration of the coal miners and their wage working allies in England suggests that constitutional democracy is not so secure even in the house of the mother of parliaments as we are accustomed to assume. We in America shall pay the penalty of negligence if we proceed on the easy assumption that liberty under the law in our boomingly prosperous commonwealth can be left to take care of itself. Constitutional democracy whether in industry or the state cannot flourish without the support and nurture of an alert and enlightened public opinion.

This nineteen weeks struggle between the International Tailoring Company and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers was no ordinary dispute over hours and wages and physical working conditions. The Union struck not only to protect its own members but also and primarily to safeguard the industrial Constitution of the men's clothing industry which, in cooperation with the leading employers in Chicago, Rochester, Baltimore, Boston and New York it has been developing for more than a decade in an effort to substitute the orderly processes of law for the violence and waste of strikes.

Readers of The Survey are familiar with the impartial machinery which during the past decade has done so much to stabilize production in the men's clothing industry. When a dispute over hours, wages or shop discipline arises in such acute form that the foremen and the workers are unable to adjust it, both the employers and the union send their deputies to the point of friction. If they in turn are unable to adjust the difficulty they carry it to the Trade Board, composed of an equal number of representatives of both sides and presided over by an impartial chairman whose decision is binding on both sides. Where the dispute involves a constitutional interpretation of the basic agreement upon which the impartial machinery is built, an appeal may be taken from the Trade Board to the Board of Arbitration, which is similarly constituted. This plan was given its first experimental test in 1911 in the house of Hart Schaffner and Marx in Chicago. During the fourteen years of its operation, production in this largest men's clothing factory in the world has never been interrupted by a lockout or strike. In 1919 the impartial machinery was extended to all the other firms in the Chicago market. Since then the men's clothing industry of Rochester has adopted it and it is at present in operation in New York, Boston, Baltimore and other clothing centers. Through cooperation between the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America and such great firms as Hart Schaffner and Marx, Alfred Decker & Cohn, Kuppenheimer, Stein-Bloch, Hickey-Freeman, Holtz & Sons, Fashion Park, Henry Sonneborn & Company, the impartial machinery has tended to stabilize production in one of our most highly seasonal and widely competitive industries. There is no industry in which constitutional democratic government has been more effective in establishing high standards and maintaining continuity of production through the elimination of strikes and lockouts as in the men's clothing industry, which is one of our foremost examples of the ability of rightminded employers and trade union leaders to sublimate class conflict into integral class concert.

The tendency of such cooperation between employers and workers is to shift the focus of their common interest from the traditional haggle of the market to efficient production. They discover that through cooperation in the conduct of the industry as a public service it is possible not only to increase earnings and wages but also to reduce the price to the consumer. One of the most significant results of the impartial machinery has been that where it has operated long enough to establish mutual confidence and good will, it has led to the introduction of production standards and to such devices for the elimination of unemployment or the amelioration of its harsher consequences as central employment exchanges and unemployment insurance. Yet there remain certain employers who chafe under the restraint of the impartial machinery, workers who still think of employers as enemies battening upon the surplus value of their labor. There are employers as well as workers who sincerely believe that the hope of mankind lies not in the slow, patient processes of constitutional democracy but in a capitalist, or proletarian dictatorship.

At regular intervals the representatives of the organized employers and workers come together to take account of stock, to revise or renew the basic agreements upon which the impartial machinery in the various markets is built. This

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occurred last May. After long negotiations the organized employers in Chicago, Rochester and other men's clothing markets agreed to renew the collective contract with the Amalgamated. With these strongholds secure, the union launched organization campaigns in St. Louis, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, to fulfill its obligation to equalize competitive conditions as between the various markets and more especially to extend constitutional government to these "open shop" centers. These campaigns taxed its resources heavily. Straightway, the devotees of the proletarian dictatorship intensified their attack upon the democratically elected officers of their Union. At the same time one of the largest firms in the industry, the International Tailoring Company, with factories both in New York and Chicago, decided to break away from the rule of the impartial machinery, to disassociate itself from the employers' associations and the Amalgamated, and to throw the force of its influence on the side of the open shop employers. Not only the union but also the leading employers in the organized markets interpreted this action as a threat to the impartial machinery. The industry had been suffering from an unusually sustained depression. There had been much unemployment. The unemployment insurance funds in the Chicago market had been under unusual strain. Discontent was rife. It was widely feared that if the manœuver of the International Tailoring Company was successful, certain other employers might follow its lead and that the foundations of constitutional government throughout the industry might be seriously undermined. Strikes and lockouts would again become the rule in the industry as they had been before 1919. It devolved upon the union to buttress these foundations not only in the interest of its own members but also in the interest of the industry and the consuming public.

There were many students of the labor movement who had come to believe that years of cooperation between the union and the employers in the major markets, the development of unemployment insurance and labor banks made possible by the relative stability under the impartial machinery, had blunted the fighting edge of the workers. They doubted whether when the test came the workers would fight in defence of anything so seemingly abstract as constitutional government, with the same energy with which in earlier years they had fought for better wages, shorter hours and improved working conditions. These fears proved to be groundless. The workers sustained the struggle against the International Tailoring Company and its subsidiary, the J. L. Taylor Company, for nineteen weeks; they poured out hundreds of thousands of dollars in defense of the impartial machinery; they sacrificed the tens of thousands of dollars they had advanced to the local organizations in open shop centers like St. Louis and Cincinnati, discontinuing their campaigns there in order to concentrate their resources upon keeping the International Tailoring Company under the impartial machinery. On November 6, after a fruitless attempt to organize its plants on an open shop basis, or under agreement with the Amalgamated's old rival, the United Garment Workers of America, the International Tailoring Company returned to the *status quo ante,* renewed its agreement with the Amalgamated and submitted to the restraint of the impartial machinery. The strike against strikes was won.

There are those who would lay the blame for this costly struggle entirely upon the International Tailoring Company, others who charge it to the aggressive policy of the Amalgamated. Personally I believe that it can more justly be said that the burden of blame rests upon the public.

Sooner or later we in America will have to decide whether class conflict or class cooperation under the forms of constitutional government is in the public interest. In the men's clothing industry the great majority of the workers, like the majority of the employers, have decided that collective action supplemented by constitutional government jointly conducted is the surest guaranty of the welfare of the industry; but public opinion has not "settled down to an acceptance of that view." One must assume that the prevailing public attitude is still reflected in the attitude of the courts.

Soon after the beginning of the nineteen weeks strike, the International Tailoring Company in New York applied for an injunction to restrain the union from picketing its factory or otherwise interfering with its business. On August 12, Justice Churchill of the Supreme Court of the County of New York, issued an order which among other things enjoined the Amalgamated "from picketing plaintiff's place of business at 107 Fourth Avenue, in the Borough of Manhattan, City of New York, in any manner whatsoever, and their congregating or standing in the street within ten blocks in any direction from the said place of business." Now it happens that 107 Fourth Avenue is almost half way between the North and the East Rivers which surround the island of Manhattan. The question arose as to whether to comply with the injunction, tens of thousands of clothing workers, in order to get from their homes to their places of employment, would have had to cross the rivers into New Jersey on the West or into Queens Borough on the East. The business offices of the union and the Amalgamated Bank lie within the forbidden radius. Again the question arose as to whether in order to comply the union would have had to close its offices and discontinue the business of its bank. It also happened that the subsidiary of the International, the J. L. Taylor Company, conducted its business in the same building with the International. The International had contended that the subsidiary was an independent concern. In applying for an injunction it did not include this subsidiary as joint plaintiff. The union therefore proceeded to picket the J. L. Taylor Company. The pickets were hailed into court for contempt.

The contempt proceedings came up before another justice of the Supreme Court of New York. After hearing the evidence, Justice Levy said, "There is no man in the world probably, who has a higher jealousy for the dignity and integrity of this Court—in fact of courts generally—than I have; . . . but it strikes me that this is the most far-fetched proceeding that I have ever found coming to my notice. . . . The idea of attempting to bring in five men who were working in the same building with a concern that was cut off completely, divorced from that for whom you secured your decree or your order, and seek to hold them criminally for enforcing what they regard as their legitimate rights in protesting over conditions or wages or whatever it be that to them prove unsatisfactory and make demonstration in evidence of that protest, and seek to jail them is a high-handed proceeding in my opinion, and certainly not one that I will tolerate or suffer." What could more strongly tend to breed disrespect for the courts than this preposterous situation—a situation which, like the strike

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itself, is directly traceable to what Senator Pepper once called the "pangs of indecision" from which American public opinion with respect to the status of organized industrial government suffers?

In Chicago the courts did not fall into this predicament largely because during the preceding summer, the Illinois legislature had passed an anti-injunction law limiting the power of the courts in industrial disputes. So that while injunctions were applied for and issued they did not interfere with orderly picketing. But that this action on the part of the legislature did not represent preponderant public opinion was indicated by the fact that while the courts did not there attempt to interfere with picketing after the manner of the New York courts, the police raided the offices of the Amalgamated and arrested numbers of men whom they charged with conspiracy. How substantial these charges were is shown by the fact that at the termination of the strike the International Tailoring Company had them quashed.

In an address before the American Bar Association [see The Survey, August 15, 1924] Senator Pepper expressed the view that "In the last analysis the attitude of the community will be determined by the workers themselves." This judgment is in part borne out by the fact that immediately after the beginning of the strike the United Garment Workers of America, the union which before 1911 represented the workers in the men's clothing industry, joined with the employers in attempting to undermine the Amalgamated and the impartial machinery. There is no space here to enter into the history of the internal row which resulted in the separation of the workers who subsequently organized the Amalgamated outside the American Federation of Labor from the United Garment Workers, which is affiliated with the Federation. That the indecision which characterises public opinion is in part at least due to division within the ranks of labor is indicated by the fact that the Chicago Federation of Labor, representing a group of unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, unanimously adopted resolutions supporting the Amalgamated and condemned the action of the United Garment Workers —an action for which they were subsequently rebuked by the president of the American Federation of Labor.

After a struggle of nineteen weeks, representatives of the International Tailoring Company and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America came together to renew their former friendly and cooperative relationships. The impartial machinery in the leading clothing markets was not only saved but strengthened. It is not for an outsider to attempt to allocate the blame for a conflict which wasted millions of dollars, engendered bitterness and occasioned the loss of life. The record does, however, make it clear that a very large share of responsibility rests upon the public whose indifference and indecision was fundamentally at fault. If constitutional democracy is to prevail over class warfare in American industry, the public will sooner or later have to lend the force of enlightened support to such employers and trade union leaders as those in the men's clothing industry who are cooperating in the very difficult enterprise of substituting the rule of civilized government for the rule of the jungle. It is written in the history of the western world during the past decade that upon their success or failure the future of our great democratic experiment is destined to turn.

R. W. B.

Women Workers in Russia

THE effect of the present regime on the status of the women and children of Russia is probably the phase of the Soviet experiment which has been most widely and sensationally discussed.

When, a year ago, British trade unionists sent a delegation to study existing conditions in Russia, no women were included in the group. During the past summer, therefore, a group of British women, representative of various trades and industries, spent nearly three months in Russia, studying the condition of women and children. M. Quaile, national organizer of the Transport and General Workers Union and a member of the Central Council of the Trades Union Congress, acted as president of the delegation. The other four members of the delegation and their secretary represented the viewpoints of journalism, union printers, women garment workers, weavers, and the Young Labor League. Their detailed report covers working conditions and wages in industry, the peasant women, education, family life, children and young people's organizations, health institutions, social insurance and the attitude of the women workers toward their government. About 27 per cent of the workers in Russia and 25 per cent of the union members are women.

Except for antiquated machinery, the delegation found factory conditions good. The rule of equal pay for equal work is scrupulously observed. Wages were found to be, on the whole, below the pre-war level. "But when considering the wages of the Russian workers," the report points out,

> it should be remembered that the wages of both men and women workers in Russia are supplemented by a variety of benefits not enjoyed by the workers of scarcely any other country, namely, low rents graduated according to wages, so that a man with a very low wage pays a purely nominal rent. . . . Wages are also paid for statutory holidays. . . . Free medical service, free holidays at rest homes, including traveling expenses, similar free treatment at sanatoria, insurance against disablement, illness, accident and unemployment to which the worker contributes nothing, leave of absence with full pay for child-birth, an allowance for the needs of the newborn infant, care of young children at the factory nurseries free of charge, reduced charges for all municipal services such as gas, water, electricity, tramways, etc., free or cheap concerts and theater tickets, premises free of charge for trade union meetings, clubs, and so on and so on. All this makes a very real addition to the wages of the Russian worker.

Where, before the 1905 revolution the work day was from 14 to 16 hours, and before the war from 9 to 12 hours, there is now universally a 46-hour week, and not more than 8 hours of work per day.

Throughout the report, the government's care of the children of Russia is emphasized:

> During our visit to the nurseries and kindergartens attached to the factories we could not help thinking, when looking t the bright faces of the little ones, how much better cared for are the children in Russia today than the children of the working mothers in this country, who through force of circumstances have to leave their little ones during the day to be breadwinners.

Apprentice schools are attached to practically all factories, where boys and girls from fourteen to eighteen receive a combination of liberal education and trade training. Beginning with two hours of actual work a day at fourteen, these apprentices are permitted to do full time work only after they have completed their schooling and reached the age of eighteen.

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Wings *and* a Microscope: an Open Letter

"Christ Steinkopf," Platt-Deutsch American by birth and baker by trade, discussed with his friend, Israel Mufson the article by Earle Edward Eubank on workers' classes in Cincinnati which appeared in The Survey for July 15, 1925. Mr. Mufson reported Mr. Steinkopf's argument for labor education that gives the worker "A microscope and a monkey wrench," rather than "a nice white pair of wings" in The Survey, Sept. 15, 1925. In this open letter to Mr. Steinkopf, the discussion is carried forward by P. W. Kendall, chairman of the Special Committee on Education, Cincinnati Central Labor Council, and also chairman of the Joint Committee of the Central Labor Council and the University of Cincinnati and Student Representatives.

DEAR MR. STEINKOPF: Israel Mufson's article in The Survey for September 15, entitled Wings or a Microscope, is a dandy and I read it with real enjoyment. I know that vigorous men like yourself speak from the heart, and that is why I hope to become better acquainted with you; because I feel that you are not so much at variance with the trade union attitude toward education as Mr. Mufson's article would lead one to believe.

There are one or two things which Mr. Mufson in all fairness should have made clear to you during your discussion of our Cincinnati labor classes. First, he should have explained that the courses offered in our Cincinnati program, "Kultur courses" along with the rest, were selected by the Joint Committee of the Central Labor Council, the University of Cincinnati, and representatives from the students. He also should have informed you that each student is free to select any of the nine courses prepared for which he has time. And he should also have confessed to you that he has not only been an officer of this joint committee that selected the courses, but that he has probably worked harder than almost any one else during the first two years to secure an attendance for them.

As his article stands, I fear he deliberately permitted you to leave his room with the impression that a bunch of high-brow professors had gotten together in his absence and wished off a lot of "white wing" subjects on the unsuspecting workers. As a matter of fact, the Labor Council and the University determined the whole thing jointly, and it would be unfortunate if Survey readers should fail to get that idea.

Then too, evidently Mr. Mufson came in a minute too soon with his home brew, so that you were interrupted right at the point where Professor Eubank was quoting the business agent of one of our Cincinnati locals who has so often said in our committee meetings that he wanted general courses not so much because they helped him *make* a living as because they helped him *to get more* out of living. If you had read on a few lines further in Professor Eubank's article, you would have seen that there is not only a standing offer to conduct any course requested by as few as ten workers if a teacher is available, but that representatives of the student body are actually elected by each class to meet with the Joint Committee to help select the subjects, and to help work out the details. Probably you ought to borrow from Mr. Mufson the July 15 Survey to take home and read in its entirety after he has had an opportunity to glance over it again.

As a matter of fact when you say that it is a question of "wings or a microscope," it indicates that the point of view which Professor Eubank tried to express is not clear. Of course technical education is needed, microscope courses to make better workmen. Of course men who are working through trade unions need education in the principles and methods of trade union activities.

I should deeply regret your being misled into the belief that the university representatives do not recognize this fact, but "wing courses" are also needed for all of us alike to enable us to have a richer and fuller understanding of life. It is not a case of wings *or* a microscope, but of wings *and* a microscope.

In this particular instance, the point that must be made clear is that the Cincinnati workers themselves have decided which courses they want. And it is our purpose to have them continue to do so, for this is the very essence of what we and the American Federation of Labor are trying to accomplish through the workers classes.

Come over some evening and let us talk it over some more.

P. W. KENDALL

The peasant women who before the war were not only the slaves of the landowners but also the chattels of their menfolk, were found to be much less advanced than the women in industry. Their very ignorance often keeps them from making use of their new opportunities. Schools in connection with every local branch of the Land and Forest Workers' Union are stamping out the illiteracy of the peasant women. There are now 11,000 such centers, and at the beginning of the year, illiteracy among union members was reduced to 30 per cent, an amazing gain over pre-war conditions. Special peasant women's conferences are frequently held "where all sorts of discussions take place, from how to feed a baby to relations with Great Britain and conditions in Germany."

Nothing, of course, so deeply interested this group of British women workers as the present status of the family in Russia. They had this comment to make upon their observations:

> All the talk about the destruction of family life and its implications are based on the fact that the Soviet authorities, as well as the most progressively-minded women desire the more active and intelligent participation of women in public, trade union, political and international affairs. To attain this, they affirm . . . it is essential to free woman from her age-long domestic drudgery, from the constant tyranny of her pots and pans and wash tubs.

It is with this purpose in mind that women are urged to reorganize their domestic arrangements, and substitute the regulated life of an industrial worker for the endless treadmill of a domestic drudge; to let the well equipped nurseries care for the children during the day, and "Narpit," the cooperative dining rooms, where "a man may come with his wife and family and have meals under better conditions,

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better cooked and cheaper than it could possibly be done at home," solve the food problem. Community laundries are also being organized as rapidly as possible. The marriage and divorce laws and the laws respecting property rights, religion, the guardianship of children and the rights of illegitimates, the delegates found sane and adequate.

There is space for only one paragraph of the illuminating "conclusion":

We do not at all mean to deny that there is still much suffering, much poverty in the Soviet Union. We are perfectly well aware that the work still awaiting the government in the spheres of education, of raising the general cultural level of the people of that vast country, as in agriculture, industry, housing, sanitation, health is still enormous. If we have described and emphasized the good it is for two reasons. In the first place, there are not lacking scribes in this and other countries who are continually not merely painting the bad sides of present-day Russia, but exaggerating them out of all proportion. Secondly, and far more important, we have emphasized the good because the bad is entirely an inheritance of the past; the good is the work of the present and an earnest of the hope of the future.

Goodwill on the Skids

THE collective responsibility of the community for the failure in industrial or racial relations of part of its members is emphasized in a remarkable report on the deportation of Japanese laborers from Toledo, Oregon, last July which has just been published by the Portland (Oregon) Council of Churches.

According to the report, Japanese labor was brought into Toledo last spring by the Pacific Spruce Corporation, to work on the "green-chain" night shift. A resolution protesting against bringing in Japanese was at once passed by a citizens' mass meeting and also by the Business Men's League and the Chamber of Commerce. The Japanese labor agency refused to send workmen to Toledo unless these resolutions were rescinded, as proof that the sentiment of the community had changed.

Following the application of pressure on the part of the mill, the resolution was withdrawn at a joint meeting of the Business Men's League and the Chamber of Commerce by a vote of 45 to 11. A few days later the Lincoln County Protective League was organized "to protect the community from the employment of Japanese labor or any other Oriental labor." Thirty-five Japanese were nevertheless brought to Toledo and quartered in houses built for the purpose on mill property. The next day a mob of five hundred citizens forced their way to the Japanese quarters and compelled the Japanese to leave immediately. Five of the mob leaders were arrested and then released. Neither the mill nor the local officials prosecuted the case.

The report points out that the community sentiment was decidedly against bringing in the Japanese. The motives underlying this sentiment are analysed as: "antagonism against the corporation; an economic fear [on the part of the white workmen] that the new mill policy would ultimately result in the loss of their jobs or a lowering of their working conditions; and race prejudice."

The economic fear of the townspeople was not justified, according to the report. The Japanese had been guaranteed the same wages as white men had been paid for the same work, and, in general Japanese laborers now demand and receive the same treatment as white labor.

It is the racial aspect of the incident that appears vitally important to the Church Council, which felt obliged "to confess to the people of Japan our failure in this particular case to hold true to the ideals of our Christian civilization, to express sincere regret over the offense, and to re-affirm our friendship and good will toward them."

The report censures the mill company and the representative of the employment agency for ignoring community sentiment, even though that sentiment was wrong and the mill company legally within its rights. Finally, the report concludes, "first, that the efforts of the Corporation to establish good relations within the town are inherently handicapped by its position of special privilege under the law; and, second, that the goodwill of the town (both in an industrial and racial sense), while it can be stimulated or retarded by the mill's attitude, depends fundamentally upon the education and religion which the town builds up."

"AN ACCOUNT OF STOCK in the child labor field" is the term used by the Massachusetts Child Labor Committee to describe the purpose of the research project it is undertaking. By means of this study it is planned to collect and coordinate all the available facts about child-labor conditions in Massachusetts, and present the information in accessible and useful form. As Raymond G. Fuller, executive secretary of the Committee points out, "This enterprise involves consideration of the objectives of child labor reform. What is supposed to result from child labor reform, and to what extent have those results been achieved as seen in everyday reality? The study will involve two other comparisons. It will follow the history of child labor and school attendance legislation in this state, and show the stages of progress in this field from 1836—the date of the first child labor law not only in Massachusetts but in the country—down to the present year. It will also compare the legislation of Massachusetts with the provisions on the statute books of the other states of the Union. The study is not only historical and comparative . . . but also statistical and descriptive. . . . It is essentially a summing up of accomplishments and a survey of the situation now."

PERHAPS all the economists and all the experts and all the agitators are wrong. Perhaps what is needed to make the wheels of American industrial life turn smoothly is not regulation or investigation or organization or higher standard of living or increased wages or better working conditions, but sweetness and light and the laying on of the gentle hands of sentiment. In witness whereof consider the recent statement of the Pennsylvania Railroad to the effect that since it started last spring to name its fast through freight trains the best records of the company's history for promptness and regularity in this class of service have been made. In the lyric prose of the railroad's publicity writer: "Like a ship, it was found that the train with a name became a thing of life and real personality. Every man along the line felt the thrill of a new and truer interest in doing his part to speed it along its journey swiftly and surely. Among the additional twenty-nine trains now to receive names, memories of Louisville will be carried by The Colonel. The Oriole will sing its own songs of the South. The Trailblazer will commemorate the old West. These, together with Uncle Sam and The Yankee, included in the first list of names will serve to typify the nation-wide character of service rendered by the Pennsylvania Railroad. The men in the Pennsylvania's freight service think they have a new answer to the old question: 'What's in a name?'"

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EDUCATION

The State and the Schools

THE State is the villain of this story. Not New York; not some other one of our political subdivisions; not, in one sense, a *thing,* at all. Just an idea—the concept of The State. As we say, governments change; governors come and go; legislatures pass; parties rise and fall; the generations may fade: but The State goes on forever!

This somewhat vague entity, The State, is always somewhere near when we are trying to make social progress; and it usually obstructs. Take the present situation in the state of New York in the field of education. For years, New York has been piling ever heavier burdens upon the school systems of local communities: manual arts and domestic sciences; industrial and vocational courses; health work of many sorts; recreational facilities and programs; special classes and visiting teachers—a still continuing story. The local school systems have plenty to do; but they cannot always afford to do it. What right has the state to put these burdens upon the schools without providing the finances to pay for them?

The justification of this and all similar procedures is that education is a function of The State—the local community being regarded as but the agent of the larger, self-subsistent unit for the carrying out of these selected programs. None the less, having piled up these duties, and having thus enormously increased the financial burdens of the local community, New York has not only abdicated, in large measure, any responsibility for providing the money for those services, but it has, by means of constitutional limitations upon the tax-levying powers of municipalities, made it all but impossible for local districts to finance their own programs. The situation has, therefore, become almost unendurable in several cities, notably Buffalo and Rochester, and relief of some kind must be found.

As a step in this direction, Governor Alfred E. Smith called together at Albany, on November 6, last, about 150 men and women of the state who are interested in education—and how to pay for it—to consider the formulation of a program to be presented to the legislature early in the new year. The conference spent some hours in careful consideration of the facts. There was much good talk—with a minimum of oratory.

THE facts seem to be not greatly in dispute. Municipal services of all sorts have grown enormously in recent years. Public incomes have not kept pace. They can't keep pace, it seems, under present constitutional provisions. Cities may levy taxes of not to exceed 2 per cent on the assessed valuation of the real property of the municipality. The funds so secured, with certain other incidental incomes, must pay for all municipal services, including education. The share which the schools receive from this 2 per cent varies greatly, however, from city to city, and in the same city from year to year. The amount seems to be a matter of yearly bargaining between the school board and the city council. It ranges all the way from less than 25 per cent (of the 2 per cent) to more than 50 per cent. Buffalo and Rochester have found it necessary, under this system, to issue deficiency bonds, for a number of years, to carry their schools through the full term. This is not regarded as good financing.

Various ways out are urged. Some think the constitutional limitation on the taxing power should be liberalized, giving to cities scope to handle their problems in their own way. Some argue that the cities should be able to find other forms of taxation outside these constitutional prohibitions. Others insist that, if the state is to dictate the services which communities must offer, it should not be above helping them to pay the bills—which it could do by means of increased state aid, without constitutional change.

The financial condition of New York may be briefly summarized, as follows:

Total wealth of the state, about	$66,000,000,000
Of this, real property amounts to	20,000,000,000
Leaving all other property in the sum of	46,000,000,000

If now, all this state property paid but 2 per cent in taxes, the total income of New York would be well above a billion—a sum beyond the dreams of avarice. But so much of the personal and intangible property of the state escapes taxation, that, though real property comprises but about 30 per cent of the wealth of the state, it actually carries more than 60 per cent of the total tax burden. There is wealth enough in New York to provide state-wide and local services, including education, to any extent that the people may desire. Why should not this wealth be available where it is needed, and as it is needed?

THIS is where the villain comes in. There was not much old-fashioned oratory at the governor's conference at Albany; but there was a great deal of old-fashioned metaphysics. The State—in its metaphysical form, and playing the part of the villain—pursued nearly every speaker, and kept him dodging from one hiding-place to another. Every bit of argument, with but one or two exceptions, began with a solemn obeisance toward The State. Nothing must be done until The State has been consulted. "Education is a function of The State." Taxation is also a function of The State. No local community may do anything until The State has given its permission.

What The State is, however, was not quite clear. It certainly is not the governor; nor the legislature; nor the state tax commission; nor the commissioner of education; nor even the people. All of these are willing and anxious to do whatever can be done to solve this problem. All of them are human beings. As Shylock is alleged to have said: "If you tickle them, will they not laugh?" But who ever caught The State laughing—except ironically? Like a dim Angel of Wrath it stands in the background, saying nothing, but dictating almost everything.

Governor Smith was, perhaps, most outspoken as to the

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need of getting things done. He said (in words to this effect):

I know that, theoretically, aducation is a function of The State. But I hold that, in some measure, at least, repeating that doctrine is one means of enabling us to escape from responsibility in our own local communities. The problem of education is as much a problem of the local community as it is a problem of the whole state; and it will never be settled until our local communities realize this fact and accept more real responsibility. We ought really to have had much more argument here today for a more complete degree of home rule in these matters. Of course, we have delegates here from many local communities; but even they feel that they must first placate The State before they make their own real arguments. I suppose we have got to let The State try its hand, once more, at solving these problems. But I hope that some of you will remember that you come from local communities, and that you will emphasize that fact until you come to believe it.

As the governor spoke, it seemed to me that the solemn form of The State softened, a bit. At one point, its capital letters slipped off, and then it seemed, for a moment, to be nothing but a sort of deferred common sense. When the governor said: "I do not for an instant admit that local communities have no recourse in these matters but to sit down and wait for something to happen," the dim form in the background became visibly human. But when he said: "This is a good year to thresh these things out, because we've got a Republican legislature and a Democratic governor; and when nothing happens, the legislators can blame me, and I shall certainly not hesitate to blame them," the form in the shadows first looked shocked beyond words, and then it fainted, and disappeared; and nothing remained in the room but ordinary men and women, all more or less caught in the clutches of old machineries, but all trying, as best they could, to find ways out of the obstructive past, with its futilities and fears, and how to do the tasks of today with effectiveness and good will.

Then somebody moved that a committee be appointed for the purpose of going into all these matters carefully and bringing the problem, with recommendations, to the attention of the legislature, with the expectation that The State would be induced to grant relief. Whereupon, the fainted form rose up again, its capital letters slipped back into place, and all made the grand salaam.

The governor has since appointed a committee of twenty-three men and women—from the schools, the legislature, and the citizenship at large—to carry on this study and make these recommendations.

So, having had our moment of rebellion, everything returns to its former subordination to The State—that vague, but very real, entity, of which governmental officials are but the more or less docile agents. This was inevitable, of course, since The State is supreme. But it leaves one small question, namely: "If everything that we try to do locally must be done under specific permission of The State, and not otherwise, who, or what, is to be the power that controls The State, and dictates the giving or the withholding of this permission? Or, is The State something supernal, the essence of Abstract and Incorruptible Intelligence—which doeth all things just right—to which, or whom, we may safely submit all issues, including our eventual destiny?" In a democracy, this is a not unimportant question!

Most of us, at least, who attended that conference will wait with interest the report of the governor's committee. What direction will their report take? Will they be constrained to suggest that the legislature ask The State for permission to grant permission to local committees to increase their taxing powers in certain restricted ways? If so, an amendment to the constitution would be necessary, and relief would obviously be postponed until legislative action could be consummated and submitted to the people. Will they suggest increased state aid? If so, what would be the basis of distribution, and how shall the money be raised: by increasing the income tax or the property tax or by discovering and tapping new sources of revenue? Will they propose that local communities go ahead on their own account and try to find ways of financing their own essential services—assuming that they are free to do anything that they can "get away with"? Will they suggest that a new and separate taxation system for the support of the public schools be established? If so, what would be the rates of taxation, and to what extent should boards of education be guaranteed freedom in the administration of their funds? Or will the problem be solved by suggesting that local communities limit the expansion of school activities so that they can pay as they go and thus recover their self-respect—if they want self-respect at the cost of education? Can they give the villain State the slip? J. K. H.

Absent

THE problem of the school attendance of rural children, which all educational statistics show to be far below that of city children, has been made the subject of an intensive study and exhaustive report by the State Board of Education of Delaware. The Board of Education had the assistance of the Service Citizens of Delaware, "organized for the improvement of social and educational conditions in the state," in carrying out the undertaking. The facts and conclusions are published as The One-Teacher School in Delaware: A Study in Attendance by Richard Watson Cooper and Hermann Cooper.

The survey is based on records of attendance from September 1920 to June 1923. During that time, an individual record of the attendance of every rural school child in Delaware with reasons for every absence was kept. These individual records were transferred monthly to the cards of Powers tabulating machines, and finally the statistics were transferred to the master sheets from which the study was made. From this elaborate beginning to the large, beautifully printed and bound volume of 434 pages in which it is published, the study shows every evidence of the most lavish and painstaking care.

The inter-relation between school and community is recognized. Attendance was found to vary, not only with home and personal conditions, but with the per cent of over-age pupils, the per cent within a mile of the school, the distance from the railroad, the average number of days school was held, the physical valuation of the school plant, the salary paid the teacher, low property values in the community. Thus attendance variations are as definitely related to specific elements in the life of the community as to specific traits of the pupil's life. The various types of farms and farm lands are discussed and the nationality and background of the various farming communities. An interesting relationship was discovered between soil and school attendance. "Pupils of poor attendance habits, irrespective of county, are more numerous in geographical areas which conform approximately to areas of the less fertile, less friable soils and to less prosperous farming communities."

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The center of the problem is presented statistically: For the state, the average number of school days was 183.9, the average attendance, 160.8. For the one-teacher schools, the school year averages 176.7 days, the attendance, 133.4 days. That is, the average rural child who attends a one-teacher school spends 27.4 days less in school than the average Delaware child.

The chief causes of absence were found to be: illness, bad weather, parental indifference, agricultural work and other work. Strawberry and tomato picking, tomato canning, sweet potato harvest, and gathering and packing holly for the Christmas trade are the chief forms of agricultural work which keep Delaware boys and girls out of school. Agricultural work is the chief factor in making boys miss school. More girls were absent because of illness. Except illness, all causes of non-attendance bulk larger in one-teacher schools than in graded schools.

The survey also seeks the answer to the non-attendance problem in the conditions of the schools themselves. The rural schools of Delaware do not present a picture to compel the enthusiastic interest of children in this report. In 200 districts, only two one-room schools are modern in type, and except for these two the buildings were constructed "without knowledge of the present standards for light, air space, ventilation, individual seats, blackboards, toilets and grounds."

The typical one-room school teacher of Delaware [it is reported] is between twenty-three and twenty-four years of age, has taught four years in one-teacher schools, attended high school four years before beginning to teach, has attended summer school twelve weeks where she received the only professional training she has had except the training received in service under professional supervisors. She holds a third grade certificate; her annual salary is $700; she teaches nine months.

Following an exhaustive analysis of the different causes of non-attendance because of elements in the pupil's life, the report makes constructive suggestions for meeting the five chief factors that hinder regular school attendance. "The only effective remedy for weather absences appears to be good roads and official transportation of pupils." "Absences due to illness could be decreased [the report explains] by well-built and well-kept modern school houses, properly heated, lighted, and ventilated, with sanitary toilets and well ordered and well equipped school grounds. Nothing less should be tolerated." School nurses, health education, "an organized warfare against communicable but avoidable diseases" by physicians and mothers, clean milk supply are emphasized and finally, "the breeding places of the fly and the malarial mosquito should be removed from all neighborhoods . . . if the United States can afford to make the Panama Canal Zone the healthiest spot in America, then Delaware can afford to clean up Delaware for the health of Delaware children." The strict enforcement of compulsory education laws, possible adaptation of the social year to the agricultural year, a continuing school census, and the employment of visiting teachers for the full calendar year are the points from which the non-attendance because of work must be reduced. Parental indifference may be partly overcome by enforcement of compulsory education laws, but "social pressure in the form of organized public opinion" is regarded as more effective. In the six years preceeding this study the average days' attendance in the one-teacher schools of Delaware was raised from 86 days per pupil to its present level of 133 days per pupil.

This survey stresses the fact that further improvement depends on community improvement, on such factors as better roads, scientific farming, higher standards of public health, more intelligent public opinion. But even if it should continue its present rapid increase in rural school attendance, there is another problem of which Delaware seems to be as blissfully unconscious as are other public school systems. Is the "study" of school texts, the acquiring of certain facts and the tricks of reading and writing and spelling education in the sense of a preparation for adult life? Even if 100 per cent of the rural children of Delaware went every day of the school year to the rural schools would they gain anything that would enrich their lives, make them happier, saner, better balanced, better equipped human beings? Would they discover anything that would help them decide what life is about, and how they want to spend their energy and time? And isn't this, after all, more fundamental than the problems of how to get the children to go to the schoolhouse a specified number of days every year?

THE ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL IN DELAWARE: *A Study in Attendance, by Richard Watson Cooper and Hermann Cooper. University of Delaware Press, Newark, Delaware.* 434 *pp.*

A School of Opportunity for Women

SALT LAKE CITY has a Civic Center—which is more than a mere name. It is under the direction of a special organization, the Women's Civic Center Association; but it is a central meeting place for all sorts of local organizations, nearly sixty of which used it more or less regularly as their meeting place during the year 1924-25. Dances, rummage sales, political discussions, financial campaigns, athletic events, and lectures on many subjects were among the activities carried on, or planned for, at the Center.

But, in addition to these general activities in the life of the city, the Civic Center is undertaking a special program in adult education. This program is new and it has not yet reached large proportions though last year there were three thousand enrolled in the various classes. But it is developing, and it indicates the newer direction which civic interest is taking in many parts of the world.

This "school of opportunity for women" has already achieved a "faculty," as follows: an executive secretary, three instructors, nine project workers, and a housekeeper. The three instructors carry on work in the fields of dressmaking and millinery, and in nutrition and home nursing. Some of the "projects" are in these fields; others are experimenting in wider areas. Work is being attempted in home arts, foods, home nursing, better home development, child training, political education and in "undefined opportunities." A library of reference materials on such subjects as child labor, international affairs, and political problems, is being developed under the supervision of the Utah League of Women Voters.

This program looks ahead to the coordination of many efforts. For example, the Civic Center Association is planning to get workers from the state education department and from the extension department of the state agricultural college to carry on the projects in home arts; nutrition experts from the state university to take over the work in foods and nutrition; the local chapter of the Red Cross to carry on the work in home nursing; the chamber

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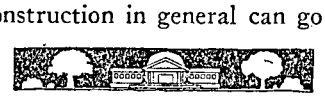
of commerce to finance the campaign for better homes; the Association of University Women to foster the program for child training; the League of Women Voters to accept responsibility for the courses in political education; and the city board of education to provide a "director of opportunity" who shall eventually become directing head of this whole program and make of it all that it should become in the life of the city.

The Civic Center encounters the serious difficulty experienced by all adventurers in the field of adult education in securing capable teachers, because the teaching of adults requires a technique differing esentially from that of the public school instructor. The Civic Center has found that a woman will come eagerly to the classes for help which she wants and which is given in terms within her own comprehension. But she will not read, she will not listen to conventional lecture courses, she dreads exhibiting her own ignorance and hides within her shell, and it is only through the homecrafts she understands that a bridge can be built between her customary routine and a broader experience. Since the only compulsion to attend classes is the urge of her own need, if she does not get what she wants the student simply refuses to come. The test of the teacher of adults is therefore in keeping her class and in the development of her work. For much of its class leadership, the Civic Center finds it necessary to depend on women in industry who are able to pass on what they have learned through personal experience and upon craft teachers, because these two groups are best able to comprehend the background and the point of view of the people they are trying to teach. An experiment last winter with a course of ten lectures, charmingly presented and well illustrated by a highly trained architect, convinced the Civic Center that the usual lecture method is not suited to the needs of a program of adult education.

This year, in spite of agitation for tax reduction the Board of Education of Salt Lake City has taken the first step toward adult education outside the self-supporting evening schools by an appropriation of one thousand dollars for teaching English to foreigners and common branches to others. This beginning, while it is an opening wedge for the adult education idea as part of the public school system, makes no provision for classes for home women, based on craft training and household arts, such as the Civic Center has been developing.

Such activities as these of the Civic Center do not, it is true, represent all there is to "adult education;" and such efforts tend, all too sadly soon, to become stereotyped and sterile. But as long as they are being enthusiastically, critically and creatively carried on, they represent what is probably the most constructive work being done in education in America today: that is to say, they are helping to create that more intelligent community, within which educational reconstruction in general can go on successfully.



THE RECENTLY PUBLISHED reports of the Third International Conference of the New Education Fellowship held in Heidelberg in August are interesting for the colorful and impressive mosaic of the "new education" they present, but their real significance is in the recognition of the rigid outline of the "old civilization" which encloses this hopeful experimentation. Both Herr Lamszus and Eugenie Schwarzwald stressed the anomalous position of the "new education" in the "old civilization." They, with other speakers, raised the question of what effect the education of the creative powers of the child will have on the world in which such children live and work as adults. Again and again, from such varied approaches as communities, colleges, traditions, social institutions and prejudices, the Conference asked how long and how far the "old civilization" will insist that the child is made for his environment and must be forced to adapt to it, however he is thwarted, repressed or twisted in the process. Obviously, if it is to become anything more vital than an interesting experiment, the "new education" cannot stop with the elementary schools. Freedom to grow and experiment and create must become a recognized necessity in all departments of life. And this, of course, means not only a "new education," but also a "new civilization."

BASED on the theory that character building rather than imparting facts is the purpose of an educational system, the Board of Education of Minneapolis is trying to invent a truer gage of individual progress than the conventional "report card." At present, the experiment is confined to the Lyndale School, where, instead of being graded with mathematical percentages in the three R's, the child carries home a card showing his "rating" in industry, honesty, punctuality, judgment, social attitudes and deportment. Ernest W. Tiegs, assistant to the superintendent of schools, who is in charge of the experiment, comments, "It is the purpose of this experiment to develop character by stressing character traits rather than by laying emphasis on the subjects taught. While pupils forget much of what they learn in school, they keep to a greater degree certainly, the habits of work and thought which they have acquired there. If after a reasonable trial it is found that such character traits as honesty, punctuality, and obedience have been enhanced in the pupils, then it can be judged a success." To find public school educators dallying with the idea that the development of character is more important than the acquisition of facts is a heartening discovery, even if some of the "traits" that Mr. Tiegs selects for development seem to serve "discipline" rather than individual expression. As criteria of the success of the school as an agent in the education of the child, punctuality and deportment seem less important than, say, imagination, curiosity, spontaneity, self-reliance and happiness. And the greatest of these is happiness.

THE QUESTION as to whether educators in American public schools are at liberty to think is to be argued again, following the dismissal last spring of Professors Manley H. Harper and Harry B. Smith of the State Normal School at Genesee, New York. The general reason given for the dismissal was that the two teachers were "causes of disharmony among the faculty." It was reported to the Board that both men were Socialists and had voted for LaFollette. Neither Professor Harper nor Professor Smith is a Socialist. It so happens that both of them voted for LaFollette. A committee of lawyers, clergymen, teachers and politicians, headed by Professor William H. Kilpatrick of Columbia University has started a movement to secure a complete hearing of the matter and bring about the reinstatement of the two teachers. In a letter to Commissioner of Education Frank P. Graves at Albany, this committee formally applied for a hearing on the ground that the dismissal "without explanation or hearing is opposed to the best ethics of the profession and demands searching inquiry." Before a hearing can be arranged, it is necessary that petitions of grievance be filed with the Commissioner of Education, and the Board which dismissed the teachers be given opportunity to reply. The petitions are now being prepared. On the basis of the petitions and reply the issues will be drawn

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and a date set for a hearing. Three hundred and twenty of the school's 383 students protested the dismissal of the professors. The committee includes Professors Edward S. Evenden and Franklin H. Giddings of Columbia University; George M. Forbes of the University of Rochester; Paul Klapper of the City College of New York; Albert Van Dusen of Syracuse University; J. M. Williams of Hobart College, and George A. Works of Cornell University.

A MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY, dedicated to Dr. Sun Yat-Sen, the "father of the Chinese Revolution," who died in Peking in February is to be opened in Moscow this month by the Soviet authorities. Karl Radek has been made the head of the new institution, which will be supported by Chinese and Russian funds. The stated purpose of the university is to train Chinese students in political and social sciences and to fit them for public service in China. The Praesidium of the university will include Mme. Lenin, N. Bukharin and M. Tomsky of the Soviet "Politburo," with A. A. Joffe, former Soviet minister to China as chairman. This year 250 students will be accepted. They will be chosen by Chinese student organizations.

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION has received grants of $158,000 from the Carnegie Corporation of New York and $7,730 from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial. The Carnegie grant is for several special projects, including the work of the Board of Education for Librarianship, the study of adult education by the Commission on Library and Adult Education, the publishing of reading courses to help the library in its service to readers, the publishing of library textbooks, the Library Survey, a library school of curriculum study, a preliminary study of library extension, and a library institute to be conducted next summer at some university. The money from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial is appropriated for a three-year period to carry on the Association's work of supplying American periodicals to research libraries in foreign countries, the war and the hardships of reconstruction having cut off many foreign libraries from purchasing American publications since 1914.

Wortman in the New York World

PASSING ON THE TORCH

"An me old man says goin' to high school don't get yer nothin'."

At the recent dinner of Federation for Child Study, Dr. Elton Mayo, of Australia and Philadelphia, said: "The Parents must take the lead in helping the child to make his contacts with reality."

BY THE EXERCISE of almost superhuman ingenuity, individual public school teachers often attempt to devise some method for linking school life with community life in a real and vital fashion. One such experiment is being carried forward by students of the Manual Arts High School in Los Angeles, under the direction of William R. Tanner, who describes himself as "an ordinary English teacher," and who was last year president of the High School Teachers' Association of Los Angeles. Mr. Tanner has organized groups of high school boys who make expeditions into the foothill canyons, where they gather seeds for the County Forester. The seeds are cleaned with the assistance of some of the girls of the school. On a second trip over the mountain trails, the seeds are carried to areas recently burned over by forest fires and planted as the Foresters direct. Though this activity is proceeding without "formal official sanction," a mass meeting of students in the school auditorium pledged themselves to carry it on. The time and effort the students are eager to expend on this extremely limited reforestration project is suggestive of what might be accomplished if the schools attempted to give expression to youth's insistent need for growth through experience, instead of stifling the urge for activity and experiment.

AN INTERDENOMINATIONAL student conference is to be held in Evanston, Illinois, the seat of Northwestern University, during the Christmas holidays. The conference program is planned to give a historical survey of the church, followed by a study of the reasons for indifference and opposition to organized religion. The third part of the program will consider what the church is actually accomplishing, and "after a summary of conclusions reached, ways and means of cooperation will be discussed with the purpose in mind of action." The conference announcement adds, "Despite the fact that the conference will be held in a church, and most of those present will probably be members of some church body, the conference will be unbiased and critical in its evaluation of the church machinery. Students today are painfully aware of the inadequacy of the church . . . . and they are not going to be hesitant about expressing their opinions." The addresses of the program speakers will be supplemented by student addresses and group discussion. Student reports of investigations into "what the church is actually doing today in different difficult fields will also be made." There is considerable uneasiness in the denominational press over this student conference. More than most institutions, the church appears to shrink from youth's hard and uncompromising appraisal. If the conference should prove to be a genuine expression of the attitude of the college youth of today toward religion its proceedings would be invaluable, not only as affording a test of the success or failure of the church in its contacts with youth, but as a revelation to educators and parents, of what young people are really thinking about.

THE SWISS EXPERIMENT in sickness insurance for school children is being broadened to include accident insurance. The canton of Zurich now has 160 public schools, in 150 communities, which are providing accident insurance for the school children. There are various arrangements, but the average of 1,000 francs is paid in case of accidental death, 5,000 francs in case of permanent handicap, and 3 francs a day for medical treatment. Most communities pay the premiums as a community responsibility, but in some of them the parents contribute to the fund. The government of Zurich is making plans for taking over the accident insurance of school children, in order to put it on a uniform basis throughout the canton. This has already been done in Bern and Bazelland.

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Page decoration by Olla Hjortzberg

LET THERE BE LIGHT

Books in Our Alcove

Edited by Joseph K. Hart

Literature in Four Dimensions

THE autumn flood of books has been enormous—in width, if not in depth. If printing presses ever do really groan, they must have groaned this fall. The reviewer's table has been piled high—the brilliant jackets rivaling the colorings of the hills—which has helped to reconcile the reviewer to staying in town these fine fall days while the leaves were rustling and the nuts were tumbling down.

The task of dealing with these accumulations of words laid end to end across mile after mile of paper is not easy. Classification comes first in any well-ordered business; classification is the first law of the book reviewer. But classification of books is difficult. Old classifications seem to have lost their point. We must find new bases of discriminating values in books. What shall those new bases be?

Books have natural dimensions. Why not divide them into four main classes on the basis of the four natural dimensions (natural, since Einstein) which we find in things, as follows: books that have length; books that have breadth; books that have depth; and books that have thickness? Does that take in everything? Well, of course, contrariwise, some books are short; some are narrow; some are shallow; and some are thin. With those relativities in mind, we may accept this preliminary grouping. That much is velvet.

But these classifications are not mutually exclusive: there are many sub-classes. For example, one long book may be deep, another may be narrow, and a third may be thick, or thin; a broad book may be deep, or it may be shallow, but it is not likely to be thick. A book may, conceivably, be long and broad; but it seems unlikely that any book could be both deep and thick. But these are troubled seas, and we shall do well not to tempt them too far. It is best not to have too much velvet.

Perhaps we can agree on two propositions, namely: first, that we should throw overboard all books that are long and thick—*spurlos versenkt:* life is too short to waste any of it on that ilk. . . . What a lot of them that disposes of. . . .!

And, second, that we shall treasure all books that are broad and deep!

As for the rest, let's put them on the shelves for the present: we may consider them as dispassionately as possible when we have the time and are in the mood for discipline without thought of recompense. (The poor we can throw lightly away; the excellent we can treasure and, maybe, live by; but the merely good, and the mediocre—these are the stumbling blocks of our existence as book users: they fill up our shelves, and nobody is ever quite ready to decide what shall be done with them!)

Here, for example, still on the shelves after a year, is a long, thin, narrow and shallow book, by one Albert Edward Wiggam: The Fruit of The Family Tree. The book has four dimensions—but three of them meet in a point, a narrow, thin, and shallow "nordicism." For some reason, this book has been a "best seller": probably because of the advertising it received; or, maybe, because a previous book by the same author—a book that was not quite so narrow, but was almost equally thin—had achieved some considerable reputation, and carried this one along with it.

Here, also, is a short, thin, narrow and shallow book, by Knight Dunlap, professor of psychology in the Johns Hopkins University, which he calls Old and New Viewpoints in Psychology. In this book, Professor Dunlap lays about him mightly with a tin sword; and he succeeds in killing off McDougall, with all his social psychology; and Watson, with his behaviorism; and he ends the fray with a broadside at "Freud and his followers," thus:

> So far as I can make out at the present time, Freud and his disciples have contributed nothing of value to psychology, and if they have contributed anything to medicine, it is rather discreditable to medicine to have been so far behind the progress of psychology that it could profit by this mixture of psychology and superstition.

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It seems a pity that the psychologists have so little capacity to learn that one of them admits they have learned nothing from the Freudian movement. But it must be remembered that Professor Dunlap is the man who first insisted that the only way to be sure you were a real psychologist was to find out whether your name was on, or could be got on, the list of members of the American Psychological Association.

Here, on the other hand, among the books that are to be treasured, is a very short one, but very broad and very deep, by Vernon Lee, called Proteus, or The Future of Intelligence. It is in Dutton's Today and Tomorrow series, and it sells at a dollar. It is a sprightly bit of adventuring into the present and future of mind—mind, in science, and mind in the solution of the problems of our social organization: Can mind, as intelligence, rise to the level of understanding of our present social machineries? Can this intelligence then rise above the levels of our present machineries and forecast—at least in broad, sweeping lines—the future, with its need of greater freedom of the spirit, greater liberty for the individual: freedom and liberty that must be safeguarded by means of machineries, but which must ever rise above the dominion of the machine? This little book gives us a world of four dimensions: length, breadth, depth and duration; and it offers an excellent avenue of approach to that world of intellectual quality which many people long for, afar off, without quite knowing how to find their ways in.

So, through all the dimensions of human interest, these autumn books are ranging: long books and short books; broad books and narrow ones; deep books and shallow ones; thick books and thin ones; and, in addition, every imaginable sub-class. Some more of the more important ones are discussed in the following pages. The reader can pay his time and interest and take his choice. Reading a book review is not the same thing as reading a book. But the one exercise may lead to the other—and that would be another bit of velvet.

OLD AND NEW VIEWPOINTS IN PSYCHOLOGY, *by Knight Dunlap. Mosby Company. 166 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
PROTEUS, *by Vernon Lee. Dutton. 63 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Can Any Good Thing Come Out of a Village?

THE fact that this book was written at all is an odd contradiction to the conception that focuses in its title. For Jesus of Nazareth, according to Miss Austin, "was a small town man and no world builder. . . . Where the voice left him uninformed, he was simply a man from Nazareth. His social outlook was the outlook of a villager." Yet the curious contrast is that Jesus, thus rather condescendingly described as one who did the best he could considering his limitations, commands, after nineteen hundred years, the fascinated attention of a never-ending succession of writers who attempt, with no complete success, to fathom his mighty personality. Miss Austin herself writes A Small Town Man; Bruce Barton writes The Man Nobody Knows; R. L. Hartt writes The Man Himself; and Papini in tumultuous rhapsody pours forth his Life Of Christ. These are only a few of the books which in the last two years have sought from various angles to find new paths of understanding into the heart of the meaning of Jesus Christ: and if any one thing is certain above all others from men's efforts to understand him it is this: that he is greater than the measure of the commentators, and that no small, neat theory will include him.

Miss Austin unhappily has been enamored of a theory of her own, and into this Procrustean bed the facts of the Gospels must be so chopped and trimmed that what is left of them at least will seem to fit. Jesus was a small town man. A small town man ought not to be expected to have a world vision. Therefore Jesus did not have a world vision. That is the syllogism. He was a benevolent dreamer; but on account of the limitation of his outlook, his dreams had no grip upon reality. But the premise of the theory is itself only an abstract figment. Genius is not bounded by its environment. The very definition of genius is "exalted mental power, distinguished by instinctive aptitude, and independent of tuition." And as for history, one need only call the roll of a few out of the vast multitude of the mighty "small town men" in order to see whether or not the fact that one came from a small town indicates that he must inevitably be vague and ineffective. Mohammed was a "small town man." Martin Luther was a "small town man." So was Napoleon. So was Abraham Lincoln. And if one should start to write a life of one of these with the assumption that because he was born and brought up in a small town therefore his life would best be understood by ruling out any recognition of its world grasp, the end of such a biography would have warped as far away from the actual truth as Miss Austin's book has warped away from the full fact of Jesus Christ.

This is not to say that the book has no value. On the contrary it has much value. It is starred by many passages of beautiful descriptive writing, and frequently the author's thought flashes with brilliant intuition upon some particular phase of the life and thought of Jesus. Much she overlooks and ignores because of the cramping exigency of her particular thesis; but where she does fix her attention, she sees and interprets with kindling discernment. Particularly may the reader be grateful that, in place of the mechanical conception of Christ and his salvation which a legalistic theology has too often preached, she reveals the tremendous reality of Jesus' own inner religious experience and the fact that his saving power lay in his communication of that vital possession of God which was so central for himself. Not all the truth, but a valid gleam of truth, is in these words:

> Paul was the sort whose knowledge begins at the periphery of the intelligence conceived as an idea. When he went into the closet of the inner self he took the idea with him and made what he could of it by the help of the Inknower. What he made with his idea of Jesus was the Scheme of Christian Salvation. But Jesus when he had gone in and shut the door, having brought nothing with him but pure desire, saw God . . . as do the pure in heart.

W. RUSSELL BOWIE
Grace Church, New York.

A SMALL TOWN MAN, *by Mary Austin. Harper and Brothers. 230 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Experience and Nature

II. What is Experience?*

WHAT is experience?

But, first, what are experiences?

Who can number the stimulations with which his nerves and senses have tingled—through the millions of moments that have made up his days and his years? The feelings and emotions, great and small, important and trivial, joyous or reverberant through the dark caverns of his being—but all helping him to realize the heights and the deeps of his moments and his days? The activities that have filled the hours—diffuse and random at first, but gathering order and control with passing time, until with some of us they measure themselves against continents and decades? The bits of information, useful and useless, sweet and bitter, illusioning and disillusioning, which have by turns exalted him and then cast him down? These and their like—each in its original form a bit of Reality—are *experiences*: of these, the universe seems to possess and to promise inexhaustible supplies. We spend our lives *having experiences*—more or less willingly. What have we to show for it—in the end?

We say, sometimes, that these experiences are "our very own." But we have difficulty keeping them private. A child is born into a world that is already organized after patterns of its own. He soon finds that this organized world—his family, his neighborhood, his school, his church—has ready-made answers to all his questions. He is not long permitted to have "his own experiences." The organized community does not like people who have experiences of their own. Young Joseph Mazzini was arrested by the police of Genoa for smiling to himself as he walked silently about the streets in the evenings. "He's quite evidently thinking about something," said the prefect of police, "and we can't have people thinking things we don't know about."

The community is most undisturbed when all possible experiences have been classified and, in a sense, guaranteed. Very early in history this classification began: the useful were segregated from the useless; the right from the wrong; the moral from the immoral; the desirable from the undesirable—in theory, at least. Bit by bit, a transverse classification has grown up across these more obvious distinctions: our useful, moral and desirable experiences have come to be grouped as civic, economic, educational, religious, and the like; they have hardened, a bit, and in some cases they have become arrogant, authoritative, intolerant of other, later experiences; and most of them have taken on external shells—like the armadillo—becoming institutionalized into governments, industries, mores, schools and churches, each with its own expert defenders who guarantee the validity and even the finality of the experiences incorporated in the institutions they represent.

These ancient classifications—and most of our modern ones, as well—assume that eventually the whole world of possible experiences will be explored, and all will be classified and institutionalized. The assumption does not lie easily at peace in the minds of most of us—as is shown by the fact that we spend so much time protecting our classifications. And well we may, if we want to keep them intact, for modern psychology is intimating that experiences that have to be protected are not as final as they claim to be. We find too many contradictions, too, for our own peace of mind. Many of our accepted economic experiences—like our wage-rates—fill us with bitterness and the sense of defeat. Many of our civic experiences—for example, the treatment of immigrants—make us bitter against our officials. Many of our moral experiences—like service on a jury—dispose us to injustice rather than to that which is ordinarily called justice. Many of our intellectual experiences—like learning lessons in school—make us doubt the reality of our own minds. Many of our educational experiences—like listening to the prejudices of the college-bred—make us seek the society of the illiterate. And many of our religious experiences—such as the quarreling of "the elect"—make us sometimes prefer a hell to such heavens. Either *we* are not *ourselves,* or else some of these standardized experiences are not *our own.*

The fact is, of course, that out of all the experiences possible in a world like this, only a few have been accepted, and admitted to that standard Experience—within which, it is held, the human race may find itself secure. All other experiences have been, for one reason or another, outlawed. Experience is a structure, built up through the ages. It has been made of experiences—but of carefully selected, tested and guaranteed experiences, not of the day's run of experiences. The life of the average individual is a story of the gradual stripping away of those experiences which were most characteristically his own—until he stands at last sufficiently like the standard type to be entrusted with freedom within the citadel of Human Experience. Thus a selected group experience is reduplicated in the experience of the fully accepted individual, and history is *made* to repeat itself. So is wisdom justified by her works!

Now, we must have experiences: to live is to have experiences. And we shall, eventually, have such an organization of our individual experiences as to warrant calling the result experience. One who has experience, of whatever sort, will spend all his energies, when occasion may demand it, justifying his own experience—against all critics. His justifications may include much more: in a certain tight little religious community, the village sot, who never went to church, was ready to go to the mat any time for the church against all "infidels and heathen whatsoever."

Since, therefore, we *must* have experiences, and we *shall* have experience—which we shall spend much time justifying, whatever the nature of it—it were well, suggests the author of Experience and Nature, to make sure that the experiences we call our own are really ours, and not conventional experiences which have been slipped over on us; so that the eventual experience that we organize and that organizes us may rest squarely upon the foundations of reality, and may, in the crucial moments of life, express us as we conceive ourselves to be.

* A running interpretation of John Dewey's masterpiece

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Where Genius Begins

GENETIC STUDIES OF GENIUS, *by Lewis M. Terman and Others. Stanford University Press. 648 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE extensive application of mental tests has precipitated a wide divergence of views among students of social problems. There is one school which regards the standing in an intelligence test as an indication of inherent and relatively general mental capacity and believes that mental tests have revealed very large and significant differences in the intelligence of individuals and of groups. The opposing school considers the differences in question to be less inherent, less extensive and less significant. The author of the volume before us belongs to the first school. He presents here the first report of a very extensive study, comprising a whole series of particular studies, which deals with a group of about one thousand gifted children of California. "Gifted" means standing in about the upper one half of one per cent in an intelligence test.

The attention which psychologists and educators are giving to gifted children and their education is a recent development. The lack of adaptation of the school to gifted children is not forced on our attention as it is in the case of the backward children. The application of mental tests is responsible for the recognition of the fact that they are as numerous and differ as widely from the average as the mentally deficient. While special teachers, classes, schools and methods have been devised to provide for backward children, very little attention has been devoted to superior children. It was with the conviction that this neglect results in great waste of human and social capital that Terman and his assistants set out upon the extensive investigation of the physical, intellectual, social and moral characteristics of gifted children of which this book is the first published report.

The plan of the entire study includes first the discovery and preliminary study of approximately 1,000 gifted children —a main experimental group of 643, a high school group of 309, and others—and a ten year follow-up study. The first investigation was made to obtain as complete a picture as possible by the application of a great variety of scientific tests. The follow-up study is to determine what becomes of children who exhibit unusual ability in school and in mental tests—to find out whether they continue to distinguish themselves in high school, college and later life. A beginning on the follow-up, after two years, is reported in the present volume. The deeper aim of the whole investigation is to gain evidence on the causes of these children's superiority, particularly to assign their due share to inheritance and environment.

Drawn by Daumier
THE READER

It is obviously impossible to do more in a brief review than to sketch in bare outline the main conclusions thus far. There is a definite preponderance of boys in the group, probably due, the author thinks, to greater variability in the male. There is a preponderance of certain racial groups—especially Northwest Europeans and Jews. Likewise there is great excess of children of certain occupations—the professional and commercial—and a deficiency of children of men in industrial occupations. Intellectual superiority is manifested very early, and is not to be accounted for, the author believes, by environment. Gifted children are slightly superior in physique, are above average in emotional stability, are superior in moral traits and conduct and are about average in specialized abilities, such as mechanical ingenuity and manual skill. Their school achievement is 40 per cent beyond their age, but their grade location is only 14 per cent in advance.

Whatever minor defects the study possesses are overshadowed by the extent of the undertaking and the painstaking care with which it is being prosecuted. Even those who may disagree with some of the interpretations will find here a wealth of new scientific data on individual differences in mental development.

FRANK N. FREEMAN
University of Chicago.

Must Workers Lack Work?

CAN BUSINESS PREVENT UNEMPLOYMENT? *by Lewisohn, Draper, Commons, Lescohier. Alfred A. Knopf. 226 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is a discussion of the problem of unemployment and irregularity of employment—unemployment within employment—by two New York employers and two economists of the University of Wisconsin. It is by and large one of the most succinct, lucid, suggestive and readable books on the subject that has come from the American press. It is based upon two main contentions: 1. "Unemployment is *the* outstanding defect of capitalism" (p. 152); 2. "The control of unemployment is actually in the hands of the influential business executive and for it the business man is primarily responsible" (p. 6).

In view of this bold and novel approach to the subject, it is to be regretted that only one-fourth of the volume is devoted to a swift review of How Some Of Us Have Met Unemployment, which may be assumed to be the contribution of the employer members of the quartet.

Four chapters are given over to a survey of the fairly well known facts about the extent of unemployment, its costs, public policies for its mitigation, especially the use of public works to offset the dip in the business cycle, and insurance against unemployment both by government and voluntary agencies. The material contained in these chapters constitutes an unusually vigorous indictment of the outstanding defect of capitalism and is designed to bring home to the executives a lively sense of the colossal wastes of unemployment and their responsibility for its elimination.

Nevertheless the most valuable part of the book is that devoted to the review of the actual methods adopted by various employers in stabilizing production in their own plants. The authors give a list of 116 firms and corporations which have experimented successfully with plans for the regularization of production; unfortunately of these 116, constituting a list not meant to be exhaustive, the manage-

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ment methods of hardly more than a dozen are discussed in even moderate detail.

Inasmuch as the volume is addressed primarily to business executives, the authors seem to have feared that they were retelling old stories. They assumed that executives had followed the reports of these various experiments in the technical journals. This seems to us an over-modest assumption. It is probable that not one executive in a thousand is any more familiar with them than most social workers are. When the authors come to what they describe as the "best known example in this field," that of the Dennison Manufacturing Company of Framingham, Mass., they apologize for retelling a story which in a more intelligent age would be in the newspaper headlines—a distinction which it has never achieved. "At the risk of repeating what the reader may already have read in business magazines," they tell how this firm, having developed a statistical department to discover some basis for predicting changes in the course of business, was apprehensive rather than optimistic during the boom period early in 1920. Although the business world was full of confidence, statistical indications suggested that depression was due in the fall. Although orders on hand greatly exceeded factory capacity the company added new salesmen in order to have them trained on the arrival of the business slump. They curtailed advertising in order that they might have more money to spend when business was harder to get. They invented new products to supplement the regular lines—crepe paper hats, for example, to be worn on the beaches, a hat to match every skirt. The idea caught on with the result that when depression spread over the country, the Dennison crepe paper factory was called upon to produce more than in any previous year. The authors tell enough of the story to whet the reader's appetite for full details, but they forbear for fear of exhausting his patience.

With similar restraint they tell the story of the extraordinary means adopted by the Hill Brothers Company, importers and packers of dates, to develop all year round markets. The dates handled by this company are grown in Mesopotamia, at the head of the Persian Gulf. The crop matures in September and is shipped after harvest to Brooklyn to arrive there between the months of October and January. The greatest demand for dates had been during the months from September to January. It was customary in the old days to pack during the first part of the year and then to concentrate upon high speed production during the last four months. This meant an average working force during the first eight months of about two hundred employes and during the last four of eleven hundred. By the simple device of building a cold storage warehouse and of educating consumers to a year-round demand, by adding side lines of figs canned in syrups, sliced citron in packages, shredded cocoanut and the like, the workers are now assured practically continuous employment throughout the year. Production costs have increased slightly but net profits have also increased, and as the result of regular work, the annual income of the workers has increased approximately 30 per cent.

Some dozen of such successful experiments the authors epitomize. In every case these epitomes whet the reader's appetite for the full story. One could wish that the entire volume had been given over to case recital and analysis of the actual achievements of the 116 plants listed in meeting the problem, under the infinitely varied conditions which have to be met by executives in such diverse industries as harvesting machinery, face brick, hollow tile, raisins, automobiles, cast iron pipes, plate glass, clocks, underwear, etc. It is out of the experience of industry itself that a thoroughgoing program for the budgeting of industry and the stabilization of employment through forward planning, scientific management and constructive cooperation between workers and employers must be evolved. Probably the job of compiling a comprehensive case reference book along the lines of the introductory chapters of the present volume would be too burdensome for any individual or small group of individuals. Here is an opportunity for one of the great research foundations or for the federal government itself to carry to completion a story to which Can Business Prevent Unemployment is a pioneering introduction.

R. W. B.

The Facts of Migration

MODERN IMMIGRATION, *by Annie Marion MacLean. J. B. Lippincott Co. 393 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE author of this volume has long been known among social workers for the sympathetic understanding of human essentials in problems of immigration—an understanding gained through a multitude of personal experiences. Here this first-hand contact provides the background for a systematic study of modern international migration—especially in the principal receiving countries, the United States, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, South Africa, Brazil and the Argentine.

No such collection of reliable data concerning the situation, the legislation and practice in these various countries has hitherto been available. This careful survey brings out the differences in the policies adopted and problems faced by each of these countries in their efforts to hit upon a procedure that will serve the highest national advantage. Even without the summarization of the main factors in the concluding chapter, the reader would have forcibly impressed upon him the question whether the regulation of immigration, if ever it could be looked upon as a purely national concern, can still be so regarded—and this not merely from the point of view of international ethics but from the simplest practical considerations. The endeavor of each country to maintain its own standards of living, without regard to those of other countries, is very much like that of the older trade union movements which sought to create an aristocracy of labor without regard to the condition of the submerged classes. It is an endeavor that is bound to fail.

Different is the desire to maintain a certain racial homogeneity; but it exists practically nowhere apart from cultural, religious and economic objections to other radical groups. Almost none of the assumedly "racial" attitudes really are biological. Professor MacLean quotes other authorities (and these quote each other, without the present reviewer ever having come across substantial proof) to the effect that "we have been recently getting poorer samples of these [immigrant] groups." Whatever may be the truth of this matter, the more important fact is the changing character of the standards themselves that are being applied to sift desirable immigrants.

Professor MacLean states that in their exclusion policies "the various nations act on what knowledge they have" (which she admits to be faulty), "diluted perhaps by social

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prejudice." She herself supplies ample evidence to show that the qualifying word "perhaps" in this statement is superfluous.

Neither the content nor the tone of the author's expressions of her own views on the subject of immigration policy are different from those now widely current. The historian of the future will be able very accurately to place the period when the American people, from being conscious of their immigrant origins, became more conscious of their territorial privileges. Conceptions which, but a decade ago, were common sense are now derided as "sentimental;" purely selfish aims, at variance with every previously declared public policy of the country—one need only compare the present attitude toward Japan and the Japanese with Washington's Farewell Address, hitherto one of the most cherished documents of American political education—have been raised to the level of highest national ideals.

The present reviewer, grateful as he is for the help offered by studies such as this, feels that a somewhat different treatment of the material is needed—and a good deal of additional material—to clear the air. If some of our Nordic propagandists had their way, the United States would now be a wholesale deporter and not a receiver of immigrants; so we may as well begin to study the problems of migration from the point of view of the parent countries. Moreover, with a world situation in which almost any class of any population may become mobilized through the action of economic or political changes, in which questions of international trade and of international debts and international migration are interlinked, selfish national interests as well as a more international point of view require a new approach to this whole matter of territorial settlement. When we speak of the "total" needs and "total" resources of the world today, we no longer speak of the sums of unrelated units but of things that are felt and known to have an inner unity. Thus to discuss immigration apart from problems of population pressures, from world engineering and from eugenic ideals is to deal with an abstraction and not a reality.

BRUNO LASKER

Mother Jones

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF MOTHER JONES, *edited by Mary Field Parton, with an introduction by Clarence Darrow. Charles H. Kerr and Co. 242 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

"I LIVE in the United States," Mother Jones told a Congressional committee in 1910, "but I do not know exactly where. My address is wherever there is a fight against oppression. Sometimes I am in Washigton, then in Pennsylvania, Arizona, Texas, Minnesota, Colorado. My address is like my shoes: it travels with me."

Fearless in spirit, tireless in energy, resourceful in action, pungent in speech, Mother Jones has been for fifty years one of the picturesque figures of the American labor movement. All her life she has known poverty and hardship. Her young womanhood was seared by the tragic deaths of her husband and four little children in a yellow fever epidemic in Memphis. Her personal suffering has served only to make her more keenly sensitive to the suffering in other lives. Mother Jones has never had time or inclination to study the underlying philosophy of the labor movement. By temperament, she is a fighter, an agitator, rather than a constructive leader. Most of her energy has gone into the miners' campaigns, particularly in West Virginia and Colorado, where organized labor has faced some of its ugliest battles. Mother Jones' regrettable bitterness toward John Mitchell is probably due to her temperamental suspicion of organized institutions and her failure to comprehend the ends to be gained by substituting arbitration for violence.

Mother Jones' narrative has been prettified to a surprisingly slight extent. The chapters are filled with comment and anecdote which will instantly recall her pungent, picturesque speech to anyone who has ever heard her address "her boys."

Whether or not one can agree with Mother Jones' militant credo, this backward look over the ninety-three years of her dramatic, uncompromising life is a narrative filled with meaning as well as with intense interest.

B. A. R.

Colonial Commonsense

KENYA, *by Norman Leys, M.D. The Hogarth Press, London. 409 pp. Price 15s. postpaid of The Survey.*

KENYA, by Norman Leys, is a notable book, not only because of the large amount of clear factual information it gives about this vigorous modern attempt to establish a European colony in the favorable highlands of East Africa, but for its point of view as a study of colonial problems and policy. Dr. Leys, for sixteen years officer in the medical service of the colony, has happily carried the best ideals of his profession into the writing of the book; he is both humane and scientific in his approach. This is a rare attitude on Africa and things African.

Dr. Leys has no illusions about the real motives and objectives of European imperialism in Kenya, or the results of their operation. He balances calmly both sides of the bargain, the favorable gains of the process of civilizing and the unfavorable costs of exploitation, and somehow insinuates into both sides of the account a fair and convincing argument for a *quid pro quo* basis. He thinks—warrantably—that native life has been too ruthlessly disorganized, he points out clearly not only the economic injustice, but the economic dangers of the prevailing system of native reservations as over against the possible mutual advantages of a fairly administered tenant plantation system. He scores the inconsistency of the notorious Kenya decision of 1924, presuming to protect the African from the economic encroachments of Indian labor, whereas it really only protects the European large estate holder in his economic and political over-lordship, and finally argues for a colonial program that stresses health and sanitation projects, native education, gradual extension of the franchise to the natives, and government promotion of private enterprise, large and small scale alike, based in part upon native crop ownership. It is curious to notice how hard such commonsense conclusions need to be argued for in an African situation which is a sad symptom of the shortsightedness of political and economic vision with which imperialism has inflicted the common view.

Kenya's importance, as Leys' analysis clearly shows, lies in the acuteness of her colonial problems and situation. Developed entirely since 1885, she is not a hold-over from the political imperialism of the last generation, but a fresh outpost of the most modern residential, economic imperialism. Her situation calls for a new brand of colonial policy, and the admitted breakdown of the older traditional policies is significant. Kenya is the most modern experiment of the white man in the economic conquest of the tropics. If Kenya

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fails, then modern imperialism must face a gradual withdrawal; and there seems little doubt from Dr. Leys' analysis, that to succeed a new policy is imperative. With community vision, he sees in the operation of physical and economic laws inescapable forces affecting governed and governors, settlers and natives, white, black and brown alike, and sounds a scientific warning in his call to a cooperative program based on common interests.

Certainly his are clear-sighted judgments; he says, (p. 299)

The tribes of Kenya have in short been subjected to a social revolution so wide in scope, so rapid and so complete, that no coordinated adaptations of the structure of their society have been possible at all. . . . The destructive agent has been none other than the economic system introduced by Europeans for their own advantage. . . . Society in Kenya cannot be restored to health without a fresh creation of tribal authority on as wide a basis as it had forty years ago. (i. e. before the conquest). . . . When the industry of independent African producers is given organization comparable to the one which the government has built up in the interests of the European producers, then and then only, will the African wage-earner be a freeman. . . . The government could make the labor market absolutely free . . . it could allow wages to reach their natural level, it could impose direct taxation upon the rich and reduce the indirect taxation of the poor, and it could expend in the reserves, on education and native agriculture, the money raised by taxation in the reserves. . . . The colony spends fourteen times as much on troops and police as on the education of Africans. . . .

and finally: "We can either make the cry 'Africa for the Africans' our own, or wait five, ten, twenty years until we suddenly discover that Africans have become ungovernable."

ALAIN LOCKE

Common-Sense Psychotherapy

PRINCIPLES OF PSYCHOTHERAPY, *by Pierre Janet. Macmillan Company. 322 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PIERRE JANET and Sigmund Freud, once fellow students of Charcot, are now at almost opposite poles of the psychotherapeutic world. For this very reason Janet's recapitulation of his principles of psychotherapy merits thoughtful consideration.

Janet is fundamentally opposed to psychic panaceas, whether they deal with Dubois' moralizing, Freudian pansexuality, electrotherapeutics, hypnotism, endocrine therapy, new thought, or Christian Science. But, in discussing the evolution of psychotherapeutics, he shows abundant sympathy with the contributions derived from miracles, religious practices, animal magnetism and from treatments by isolation, rest, re-education, by morale and moral direction, by faith and works.

His conception is broad and clearly distinguished from routine psychiatry, because he regards psychic behavior as an activity of the whole organism. The distinction of organic and functional mental disease is rejected. For him psychotherapy consists of the action of mind on mind: and this includes such influences upon mental function as may be induced by physical, educational, moral or religious measures. Hypnotism, rest cures, occupational therapy, psychoanalysis, Christian Science are considered, therefore, mere developments of efforts to reach the mind through the mind, on a par for serviceability with a cathartic, a bread pill, a tepid bath, or a heart stimulant.

He reveals his scientific honesty in admitting that psychotherapeutic methods are not definite and codified. The mind is in a constant state of flux and the determination of the best curative approach depends upon the physician who must make the adaptations required to meet the needs of each patient. While the power of the mind is clearly indicated, the greatest emphasis is placed upon the forms of what he calls mental economy, or the economic administration of the mind's forces. These include the factors bound up in exhaustion and fatigue, fear of action, guidance and therapy. The effected economies require a utilization of the psychic income which is derived from a mobilization of mental forces, with psychic equilibrium and those effective stimulations secured from practical psychotherapy.

The third part of the volume is devoted to the results of psychotherapy. It comprises a re-statement of the conclusions derived from the two previous divisions, with continued emphasis upon the importance of not reducing all patients to one type. There is an ever present optimistic note which lays stress repeatedly upon the importance of early treatment at hospital or dispensary.

The reader may be disappointed at the limited consideration given to Freud, Jung, and Adler or to psychoanalysis; he may be regretful that the endocrines do not receive the attention given to Mrs. Eddy; and he may look anxiously, but without success, for an opinion about Coué, but he is learning the clearly defined opinions and principles of Janet—an arch-foe of psychic hobbies.

Social workers will find an intelligent, conservative presentation of the subject, abounding in the clarity and common sense that is essential for sane social practice.

IRA S. WILE, M. D.

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

Books are listed here as received. Many of those mentioned by name only in the classified sections below will be reviewed later.

Education

OLD SQUARE DANCES, *by Tressie M. Dunlavy and Neva L. Boyd. Recreation Training School, Chicago. 96 pp. Price 75 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

A BOOK of quadrilles, with the calls just as they were discovered and revived in Iowa. The calls are fully interpreted, so that anyone who has any preliminary idea as to the way a quadrille is danced will have little difficulty getting these under way. With this book, a fiddle and a bit of good will a whole community could be made over. This is happening, too. Within fifty miles of New York, the "capital of jazz," there are villages where young people are dancing quadrilles in preference to jazz steps; and where even the old folks accept the change and are not unhappy.

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TRAINING THE TODDLER, *by Elizabeth Cleveland. J. B. Lippincott Co. 170 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

SO WELL known is the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit that it hardly is necessary to say more than that this volume is an effort to convey to others the principles which that school has developed in its work with children from two to five. The sections of the book consider standards of physical, mental, emotional and social development, expressed in terms of stories of the actual children in the school. There is a bibliography for those who wish to pursue the various topics behind this interesting and readable story into more technical reaches. The present volume fulfills admirably its not unambitious aim to "state the fundamental principles underlying the training of children in a definite form suitable for use in the home, in short courses for parent-teacher associations, or kindergartens, other adult groups, or as a textbook for high school classes of girls in home economics, embodying in a central core the theory to be supplemented by actual practice in child care."

SLAVONIC NATIONS OF YESTERDAY AND TODAY, *edited by Milivoy S. Stanoyevich. H. W. Wilson Co. 415 pp. Price $2.40 postpaid of The Survey.*

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT, *compiled by Lamar T. Beman. H. W. Wilson Co. 366 pp. Price $2.40 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROHIBITION, *compiled by Lamar T. Beman. H. W. Wilson Co. 380 pp. Price $2.40 postpaid of The Survey.*

THESE ARE all books in The Handbook Series, published by the indefatigable Wilsons. They are, as indicated, edited and compiled materials; and they are useful for all those who want excellently chosen and widely representative stuff on all sides of a question. The Slavonic book is new, as is also the one on Prohibition, with its subtitle, Modification of the Volstead Law. The one on capital punishment is a new and revised edition of an earlier Debater's Manual on the same lines. As a means of establishing an orientation in these various fields, nothing else equals these handbooks.

YOU CAN LEARN TO TEACH, *by Margaret Slattery. The Pilgrim Press. 223 pp. Price $1.35 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE TITLE of this book contains both a truth and a fallacy. Everybody who teaches has to *learn* to teach: that in spite of the ancient legend that teachers are born and not made. But not every one can learn to teach, no matter how hard he works at it. For those who have any natural right to teach, there is some good advice, herein, which will help them to be better teachers; or which will, at least, save them from becoming worse teachers.

THE LAWS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY, *by Florian Znaniecki. University of Chicago Press. 320 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS BOOK, written by the professor of sociology in the University of Poznan, Poland, is an attempt to apply the "historical relativism" of Durkheim, Poincaré, Schiller, James and Dewey, in the field of psychology. The author holds that "The modern intellectual revolution will be fully achieved only when it penetrates into every nook and cranny of our knowledge, re-states all its problems and re-shapes its methods, as completely as the Renaissance did with medieval knowledge."

SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF TODAY, *by Grove S. Dow. Thomas Y. Crowell. 337 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE FRESHMAN GIRL, *by Kate W. Jameson and Frank C. Lockwood. D. C. Heath & Co. 170 pp. Price $1.44 postpaid of The Survey.*

SCHOOL AND HOME, *by Angelo Patri. D. Appleton & Co. 221 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

OUTLINES OF THE SOCIOLOGY OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR, *by Daniel Kulp II. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College. 257 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

PERSEUS OR OF DRAGONS, *by H. F. Scott Stokes. E. P. Dutton & Co. 74 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROMETHEUS OR BIOLOGY AND ADVANCEMENT OF MAN, by *H. S. Jennings. E. P. Dutton & Co. 86 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

WHY WE LIVE, *by Amos Stote. Doubleday Page & Co. 185 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Health

EYE HAZARDS IN INDUSTRIAL OCCUPATIONS, *by Louis Resnick and Lewis H. Carris. National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness. 247 pp. Price $2.50 cloth, $1.50 paper postpaid of The Survey.*

WHEN the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness started to revise its original publication on Eye Hazards in Industrial Occupations, issued in 1917, it was found that so much new material had been accumulated on the prevention of eye accidents in industry that a whole new volume was necessary. The present publication brings together the experience of the many individuals and groups engaged in this study in many parts of the country in an authoritative compilation with useful appendices, reading lists, and index.

PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC HEALTH ENGINEERING, *by Earl S. Phelps. Macmillan. 265 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE administration of public health brings to a focus a group of professions whose outer rims lie far from each other's compass. This volume by the professor of sanitary science at the College of Physicians and Surgeons of Columbia University is designed to meet the needs of two classes of advanced students: the medical health officer who has had little or no engineering training and the sanitary engineer well versed in engineering, but with insufficient knowledge of public health principles. "It is believed," says the author, "that the physician who will never have to build a sewage disposal plant and the engineer who knows how to build one will both profit from a consideration of why such a plant is necessary and what it may be expected to accomplish."

PERSONAL AND COMMUNITY HEALTH, *by Clair Elsmere Turner. C. V. Mosby Co. 426 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

FEW PERSONS could have been better fitted than Professor Turner to fill the gap in texts for teaching personal and community hygiene to college students, now so admirably met by his present volume. As professor of biology and public health in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, associate professor of hygiene in the Tufts College Medical and Dental Schools, and a former member of the administrative board of the School of Public Health of Harvard University, he has had ample opportunity to realize the need of a volume which would emphasize the preventive aspects of the new movements in public health, and the means by which such material could be presented simply and attractively to college students. A working bibliography is appended.

THE MEDICAL FOLLIES, *by Morris Fishbein, M.D. Boni and Liveright. 223 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN THIS series of essays the editor of the Journal of the American Medical Association brings together the stories of some of the fads and fancies to which the public has been subjected or exposed in the name of health, together with essays on birth control, rejuvenation, and medical mistakes of the press. In general the picture reflects the pitiful credulity of the victim of nostrums and quackery, and the unscrupulousness of the proponent, though sometimes undoubtedly the seller is as deluded as the sold. Naturally these stories are told from the point of view of a member of the orthodox medical group; if any omission were to be found in the volume, it is perhaps the lack of an example of the fashion in which even the most intelligent and conscientious members of an advancing profession are compelled frequently to disavow the beliefs which they have sponsored in the name of science and confess that they do not know or have learned better. The book gives the comment of a competent student of medical practices on such discussed topics as osteopathy, chiropractic, rejuvenation, antivivisection and the like.

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Other Books Received

THE SENATE AND THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS, *by Henry Cabot Lodge. Charles Scribner's Sons. 424 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS posthumous work of the late senator from Massachusetts, "scholar in politics," and irreconcilable in international affairs, will please the reader, or irritate him, according as the said reader is an admirer of the late President Wilson, or the opposite. You make your choice, on irrational grounds, and then you get your reasons from the book. The book should not suffer dispraise, however, on this ground, because everybody's doing it.

OPIUM: *An Account of the Traffic in Narcotic Drugs, by John Palmer Gavit. George Routledge & Sons, Ltd., London. 308 pp.*

". . . .'OPIUM' has a long arm, and neither conscience nor mercy!" writes Mr. Gavit in a nameless acknowledgment to those who assisted him in all parts of the world—nameless for that reason. The phrase gives us some inkling of the courage, but not of the craftsmanship, with which this American newspaperman has sifted from his vantage post in Geneva the facts as to this world menace. Readers of Mr. Gavit's article in the October Midmonthly will guess at the human interest with which he invests it. There should be an American edition of this American's book.

THE LOST SPEECH OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN, *by Honore Willsie Morrow. Frederick A. Stokes. 57 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

OUR SUSSEX PARISH, *by Thomas Geering. Houghton Co. 253 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

LOVE, *by Elizabeth. Doubleday, Page & Co. 396 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

LIFTING MIST, *by Austin Harrison. Thomas Seltzer. 317 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IT IS A STRANGE HOUSE, *by Dana Burnet. Little, Brown & Co. 188 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PONTIFEX MAXIMUS, *by Mary Shipman Andrews. Charles Scribner's Sons. 76 pp. Price 75c postpaid of The Survey.*

POINTS OF HONOR, *by Thomas Boyd. Charles Scribner's Sons. 328 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE UNHOLY EXPERIMENT, *by Constance Smedley. The Dial Press. 319 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Eighty-three Enforce It

(*Continued from page* 341)

over to the U. S. War Department complete control of all military instruction, a precedent is set whose possible consequences to academic freedom should be clearly foreseen. . . . Fourth, Military training raises the issue of an educational tendency towards a psychology for war or peace. For, even without charging that it produces desire for war or glory, it is hardly to be questioned that it makes for a *mind-set* which automatically thinks of war as the ultimate "sanction" to be used by patriotism. . . . The deep danger of military training is not that it teaches a boy how to handle a rifle, but that it leads him to *think* in the *psychology of war.*

The sponsors for the brief challenge this whole trend and they rest their care thus:

A country which has refused to accept compulsory training and service for all its citizens cannot consistently permit young men ambitious for an education to be forced into accepting military training as part of the price for that education. So much ought to be clear to every man who has respect for the spirit of American institutions . . . The removal of military training from highschools and of its compulsory feature from the colleges is a minimum program . . . But a further conclusion is forced upon us. We are convinced that it is alien . . . to the highest ideals of learning that the War Department should be given so much power and military training so much place as it now has in our college world. . . . We Americans would have said this of any country in the world. There is no virtue of our own which makes us immune to a militarism which has played so fatal a role in Europe.

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COMMUNICATIONS

Monroe County

TO THE EDITOR: I have always had the greatest respect and admiration for The Survey for its high standards for social service, and for its accuracy in recording events. And I am surprised at your discussion in the issue of October 15 of Monroe County, Pennsylvania, and its new County Home. Not only are the figures grossly inaccurate but it seems to me that your attitude in the matter is not characteristic of The Survey.

In the first place, this county has taken the forward looking step of voting in 1924, of its own accord and without outside help to abandon the inadequate and obsolete and system of township and borough poor relief and to establish a county-wide poor district. Because no facilities existed to care for "paupers," it is very difficult to find how many eligible county home patients were in the county. I would be interested to know how you set the figure at seventeen. Instead of a capacity of one hundred and fifty as you state, the building is erected to accommodate fifty!

In the second place, the total outlay for the purchase of land, erection and furnishing of the new County Home building is not $260,000 as you state, but $166,000. The contract price for the building itself was $98,000 but it cost something over $100,000 when complete, instead of $200,000 as you state. From the cost of building there should be deducted some $15,000 which went into the purchase of the land and the farm buildings already thereon.

And finally, in view of the tremendous effort wide awake state departments of welfare are putting forth to improve the wretched conditions of almshouses, it seems to me out of place for The Survey, of all magazines, to ridicule a county, even though in its zeal to correct terrible conditions discovered within its borders, it should step a little over the line in the other direction.

In fairness to Monroe County and to all communities struggling with the grave problem of caring for its dependents, and in justice to many state departments charged with the improvement of wretched existing conditions, I ask that you give as prominent a place to the correction of your statements as you gave to the erroneous statements.

ELLEN C. POTTER, M.D.

Secretary of Welfare, State of Pennsylvania.

The statements and figures upon which this editorial was based were given to an editor of The Survey by a usually well-informed citizen of Monroe County. We regret their statistical inaccuracy.

THE EDITOR

Ex-Soldiers

TO THE EDITOR: My attention has been invited to the article appearing in the November 15, 1925, issue of The Survey under the title of Are Ex-Soldiers People? written by Carter Taylor.

While I have no desire to comment upon the question at issue, that is, whether the American Red Cross should be relieved of its case work for the disabled soldiers' families, I do desire to correct the impression given by the quoted statistics on admissions to hospitals of veterans. The figure on admissions to government hospitals quoted for 1925 is erroneous and represents merely the experience of the first six months of the fiscal year 1925. The total admissions of veterans to government hospitals during the fiscal year 1925 actually were 68,474, exceeding the admissions to government hospitals reported for the fiscal years 1923 and 1924. While Mr. Taylor has used figures submitted by the United States Veterans' Bureau, he has apparently assumed that the figures given for 1925 were pro-rated on the basis of the first six months' experience, whereas, actually the figure for 1925 represented the total admissions for six months.

Furthermore, the admission figures quoted for all years are just those admissions to government hospitals and do not include those additional admissions which have been made during the quoted years to civil and state institutions, these admissions being particularly heavy during the fiscal years 1920, 1922, and 1923. Admissions of veterans to all hospitals during the years in question were actually as follows:

Year	*Admissions to Government Hospitals*	*Admissions to State and Civil Hospitals*	*Total*
1920	23,623	19,610	43,233
1921	48,070	43,370	91,440
1922	86,392	47,962	134,354
1923	59,451	23,363	82,814
1924	51,652	12,401	64,053
1925	68,474	8,338	76,812

It is, however, true that the peak of admissions were actually reached in 1922, and also that during that year in March there was experienced the greatest hospital load when some 30,900 cases were being hospitalized. This peak of cases in hospital at any one time was, however, practically equaled in February of this year when approximately 30,700 cases were being hospitalized; and, although the number of cases in hospital has been reduced to a present total of approximately 26,700, this figure exceeds any hospital population during the period from July of 1922 to October of 1924. It is further probable that this figure during the next several months will increase to some extent, and that the average number of cases in hospital at any one time during the fiscal year 1926 will equal the experience of 1925 and exceed the average in hospital for the fiscal years 1923 and 1924. It is, therefore, apparent from the above that the volume of hospital work done by the Bureau for the fiscal years 1925 and 1926 has increased over the two previous fiscal years, and that there is no indication of any pronounced falling off in the hospital population of this Bureau for some time to come.

With the increase of the hospital load, commencing with July of 1924, there has also been observed a very definite increase in the number of active compensation disability awards. In June of 1924 the number of disability awards totalled 179,037. Throughout the fiscal year 1925 and during the first four months of the fiscal year 1926 this figure has steadily increased until at the present time there are reported active 225,809 awards. Since July 1, 1925, there have been received nearly 11,000 new claims for death and disability compensation, indicating that the rate of filing claim over recent months is showing but little sign of decrease, although the rate of disallowance is naturally increasing.

As to the cause of this continued and increased activity, in the instance of disabled veterans, you are advised that the World War Veterans' Act of June 7, 1924 was most beneficial to the disabled ex-service men as a class, not only increasing the benefits to many but admitted thousands to the bene-

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ficiary class where under prior laws they were not eligible for benefits. Furthermore, this Act provided for general hospitalization without reference to service origin, which provision materially affected the hospitalization work. It is, therefore, I think, apparent that the work of the Bureau cannot be considered to be reducing in volume, except in the instance of vocational training, and that the end of the process of adjudication of claims of ex-service men from a Bureau standpoint is by no means in sight.

FRANK T. HINES
Director, United States Veterans Bureau.

TO THE EDITOR: While adequate discussion of the questions raised in the article in the November Survey Midmonthly entitled Are Ex-Soldiers People? is impossible in the brief space of a letter to The Editor, several of the more obvious inaccuracies should be called to the attention of your readers. To seem to settle the future of a service that stands as the costliest and most extensive program of social reconstruction ever undertaken by our government, or any government, with its corollary services of semi-governmental and private agencies, in three or four columns of print, obviously takes great faith.

Mr. Taylor's own figures show an increase in volume of work in Red Cross chapters. Red Cross service in government hospitals and offices show even a more marked increase during the past two years. Obviously, the volume is not diminishing when it is increasing.

Further, hospital admission figures for a year do not readily compare statistically with figures on men in hospital on a given day, as is suggested.

Even the least initiated in this service are startled at the increasing complexity of the problem—both in claims adjudication and on the social side. The job is not diminishing and is constantly becoming more complex.

Mr. Taylor's quotation of the Red Cross policy statement illustrates the critic who picks his verses at will to prove his point, without reference to context. If the remainder of the policy statement had been read, it would have been clear that the Red Cross never suggested transfer of an entire group of men to civilian agencies—as is shown by the last sentence quoted—but rather urged transfer of the individual when the problem ceased to be war-connected and became civilian.

Now, disabled soldier service is a national as well as a local job. Cleveland men are in hospitals in a dozen states. Minneapolis men appear at a dozen Red Cross chapters for transient service or on official business with the Veterans' Bureau. Claims adjudication requires a service nationally and in each state office of the Veterans' Bureau; current information to keep up to date on new legislation and regulations can be given only through a national scheme. The family service field, excellent as it is, provides no machinery to meet these varied problems.

In this connection, the constant helpfulness of the workers and leaders in the family work field should be noted. Their sympathetic cooperation has been available at all times.

There are but 250 recognized family service societies in the country, whereas 2,550 Red Cross chapters are providing disabled soldier service. What of the 2,300 communities and counties that would be uncovered?

A national officer of a great veterans' organization said to me last week that if he had to send his men to the family service society he would create a new agency instead. Even more surely than in the Civil War experience would such action follow if the Red Cross in which the service men have confidence, disappeared from the field. A dozen relief-giving agencies or one?

The argumentative statements of Mr. Taylor's four straw men hardly reflect the attitude of such persons in his or any community. First, what reputable psychiatrist who has had any contact with the disabled soldier, particularly with the rapidly increasing mental group, would say that the "mental attitude" of an ex-soldier is not essentially different from that of others in the community, and, therefore, may be approached on the same basis? Psychiatrists are finding the mentally handicapped ex-service man's problem unique.

Second, claims service involves case work. To separate it from the social problem surely means duplicate visits and confusion. Further, claims service, as stated above, is only possible through a national scheme of service.

Third, the accumulated experience of the Red Cross in the soldier field is not merely that of the local workers, but of the national and field staffs. Would the social thinker wish the government to lose this pooled nation-wide experience in the constant day by day development of its service?

Fourth, the Red Cross chapter is generally carrying other activities than soldier service which require overhead, if by overhead is meant offices, light, heat, central executive direction. On the other hand, overhead saving in case workers would not result by mere transfer of work.

Mr. Taylor suggests that "In the natural course of events the family case work of the Red Cross *will* be passed over to the regular case work agency." Conceivably so, but certainly not by proclamation if present day experience of family societies with heavy case loads and with tendencies toward diffusion of service into natural groups is a guide. Francis H. McLean, in recent surveys, has pointed out this tendency. He has urged the continuance of the soldier service by the Red Cross. One is bold indeed who unequivocally suggests such a "passing over" in the light of family work tendencies and these many other factors.

ROBERT E. BONDY
Director of War Service, American National Red Cross.

Mr. Taylor Replies

TO THE EDITOR: The little article on ex-soldier work did not presume to *prove* anything, but merely to present both sides of an interesting question.

The thing of outstanding interest in General Hines' letter is that his yearly figures on total admissions to all hospitals (and I'm sorry I did not have these figures when the article was written) show a steady up-curve to 1922, and a steady down-curve from them to the fiscal year 1925 when the new law, which he explains, became operative.

This new law, General Hines points out, "provided for general hospitalization without reference to service origin and materially increased the hospital work." Thus the 1925 up-curve in hospitalization may be no index at all to the need for Red Cross service. The hospitals may now contain many ex-soldiers whose illness has no connection with the war, and who would be no more in line for Red Cross chapter help than people in civilian hospitals.

This must not have occurred to Mr. Bondy when he alluded to the increased hospitalization last year as one evidence of increased need for Red Cross service.

Mr. Bondy also points out that his organization handled more soldier cases in 1925 than in 1924, and uses this as another argument that the need of Red Cross Home Service is increasing rather than diminishing.

General Hines indicates the probable cause of this slight upswing in Red Cross service. He explains that the Act of 1924 increased the benefits of many ex-soldiers, and admitted thousands to the beneficiary class who under prior laws were not eligible for benefits. Most of the soldiers affected by this law have doubtless filed their claims by now. Yet even with this increased load, Red Cross soldier service for 1925 has shown only a 12 per cent rise over the year before; and showed a 60 per cent drop from the high mark of 1921.

The war is seven years over. (*Continued on page* 389)

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Mr. Taylor Replies

(*Continued from page* 387)

Out of every 100 men in service, 21 have already filed government claims. In the fiscal year 1925 the number of disabled soldiers admitted to hospitals was 42 per cent less than in the peak year of 1922; and during the first six months of 1925 the volume of Red Cross soldier work averaged 54 per cent less than in 1922.

Only one conclusion seems reasonable. The disabled soldier problem is gradually diminishing in size, and many communities are beginning to ask themselves if case-work for disabled soldier families cannot be handled satisfactorily by their regular case-work agency, where one exists.

CARTER TAYLOR

Assistant to the Director,
Welfare Federation,
Cleveland

Chicago Teachers

TO THE EDITOR: In Survey Graphic, November 1, you make this statement in regard to the platform of the American Federation of Teachers: "The platform was adopted in Chicago and naturally reflects strongly the feeling of some Chicago teachers about the conditions under which they are working." Plank eleven (incorrectly printed Plank II) is also the subject of comment. It reads: "Teachers' Councils, controlled by teachers and participating in the determination of educational policies." The significant phrase "meeting in school time" is omitted. This one item is the chief bone of much of the disgraceful contention between the unionized teachers of Chicago and their present superintendent. A study of school councils in other localities reveals the fact that they do not meet on school time.

Chicago schools, like those in other cities mentioned in Upton Sinclair's Goslings, are starved because of insufficient taxation. The cause of this situation is the same as in the instances mentioned by Sinclair.

At the recent meeting of the American Federation of Labor in Atlantic City, it is reported that Matthew Woll and his co-workers on the Educational Committee proposed to study the working of intelligence tests, junior high schools and platoon schools. During August following the convention of the federation, the Chicago Daily News published various interviews with F. G. Stecker, general secretary of the American Federation of Teachers, voicing the same intention. The American Federation of Teachers emphasizes the fact that it is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Two representatives of the Chicago Teachers' Federation appeared at Atlantic City and secured condemnation of Intelligence Tests, Junior High Schools and Platoon Schools. The Chicago Teachers' Federation is *not* affiliated with the Federation of Labor.

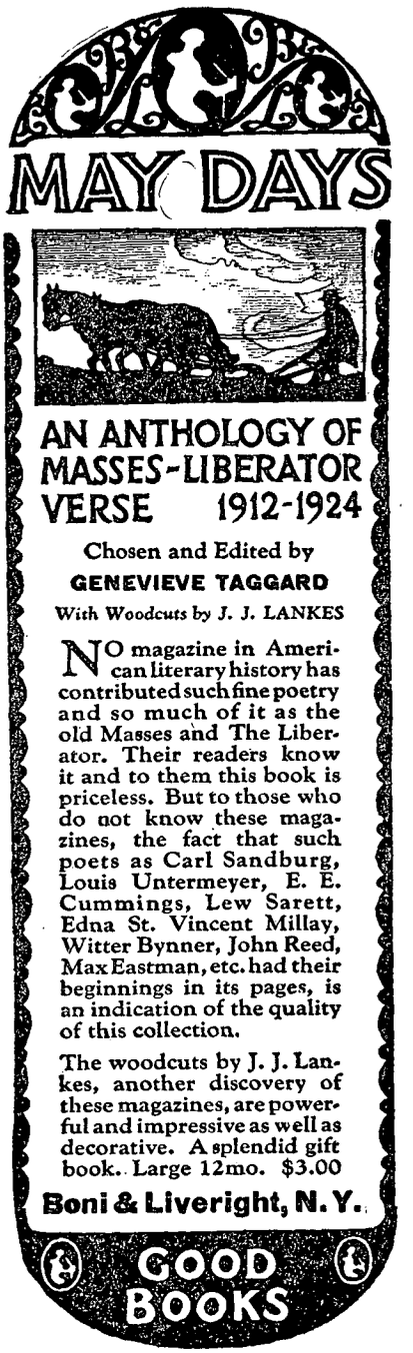
Recent utterances of The Survey imply that the teachers' unions are the only teachers' organizations interested in furthering democracy and the occupational rights of teachers.

Are no professional organizations exponents of democracy and occupational betterment? Are the professional organizations of doctors and lawyers of less consequence in furthering the welfare of society than unions of plumbers and printers?

CAROLINE BENGTSON

Chicago

In the interest of clarity it should be said that "the significant phrase 'meeting in school time'," which seems to The Survey's correspondent the chief bone of contention in Chicago, did not appear in the resolutions as adopted. The Survey's transcript of the program was correct except for the typographical substitution of II for 11. THE EDITOR.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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

ROBERT MORSS LOVETT divides his year between New York and Chicago—between his work as professor of English at the University of Chicago and that as one of the editors of The New Republic. When in Chicago, his residence is at Hull House. Those who read Francis Hackett's interpretation of what Hull House and its founder meant to him when in residence some twenty years ago, [See The Survey for June 1, 1925] will be interested in the little sketch of Miss Addams which Mr. Lovett contributed to the November World Tomorrow. Here are two paragraphs:

"Miss Addams's personality belongs peculiarly to Hull House. It belongs also to national and international causes, and the adjustment of these claims calls for personal strategy of a high order and in the last analysis for courage. It is not merely a question of division of time and energy. Hull House is supported by the community. To assume an attitude of opposition to the community means taking a loss for Hull House, a loss to be made good only by increased effort. Yet Jane Addams never flinches. After President McKinley's assassination Chicago experienced a renewal of its Anarchist hysteria of a dozen years before. Certain radicals were arrested, lodged in cells in the City Hall, held incommunicado, to their own physical suffering and the distress of their families. When Miss Addams went to see the Mayor he insisted that public opinion required that he treat them in this illegal fashion and that he could do nothing for their relief. 'But,' he added, 'you can go to see them, and reassure them and their families.' Miss Addams went and the next day was solemnly excommunicated as an Anarchist by all safe and sane newspapers. Twenty years later when the jails were overflowing with the victims of Palmer's raid she went again and was again anathematized by the same papers —this time as Communist. No one will begrudge Miss Addams her sense of comedy. More than most people she has need for it.

"Of late years, following the romantic movement in social welfare, there has come a reaction in the direction of realism. Our leading magazine of social work lost its beautiful name of Charities and became The Survey. There was much distrust of altruism as a guide. Oscar Wilde began his Soul of Man under Socialism with the blunt assertion, 'The majority of people spoil their lives by an unhealthy and exaggerated altruism'; and the other day I noticed in Count Keyserling's Diary the sentence: 'Altruism is not worth a farthing more than egoism, in fact it can be more corrupting in so far as it purchases the gain of the man who practises it at the expense of the disadvantage of many others.' The final note to put into any account of Jane Addams is that she has escaped this most subtle spiritual temptation of the social worker. She does not 'live for others,' but for herself, a self which is enormously hospitable to other selves, and creative in its cooperation with them. I cannot convey what I mean better than by quoting another story which she is particularly fond of telling. A leading church official of Utah was complaining of the unecclesiastical practices of Bishop Paul Jones, who persisted in frequenting meetings of the I. W. W. and others under the social tabu. Miss Addams, with her indomitable disposition to look for the best in any situation, suggested that perhaps Bishop Jones went among these outcasts to do them good—to convert them. 'Not a bit,' responded the churchman. 'He goes with them because he likes it.' I do not think Jane Addams has ever seen the application of this remark to herself. I am sorry to spoil her naive pleasure in the anecdote. If I have done so I hope that she will excuse it as sacrifice to the relentless demands of The World Tomorrow."

FRED A. MOORE is director of the Chicago office of the Open Forum Speakers' Bureau, recently opened at 19 South La Salle Street to serve forums, luncheon clubs, church groups, women's clubs and civic organizations in and about Chicago on a non-commercial cooperative basis.

HELEN BECKLEY has resigned as director of the Social Service Department of Michael Reese Hospital, Chicago to take a similar position with the Colorado General Hospital in Denver. The office formerly held by Miss Beckley at Michael Reese Hospital has been merged with the corresponding position at Michael Reese Dispensary under Janet Schoenfeld, who has been in charge of social service in the Dispensary since 1920.

ANNA LOUISE STRONG reaches this country just about as this issue of The Survey goes into the mails, coming from Russia via the Orient. After Christmas she will proceed from Seattle to New York via California and Chicago, reaching Chicago about February 1 and New York about February 20, lecturing before clubs, forums and other groups on her travel and work in Russia and the Orient. Enquiries concerning her schedule should be addresed to Dr. Sydney Strong, 508 Garfield Street, Seattle, Wash.

CHARLES O. LEE, formerly head worker of Flanner House in Indianapolis and recently assistant campaign manager of the Indianapolis Community Fund, has been appointed executive secretary of the Community Fund of Tulsa, Oklahoma.

"ABOUT 150 PEOPLE were present, from eighteen countries, including India, China and Japan," writes Louise C. Odencrantz of the International Industrial Welfare Congress held some time ago in Holland. There were employers, personnel and welfare workers, factory inspectors, representatives of works' councils and others interested in industrial welfare from such angles as health and education. The International Labor Office also was represented.

"This congress, as well as the last, emphasized the fact that welfare work within the plant is only a stage in the development of industrial welfare—the undertaking of this work by the individual employer until the community assumes its responsibilities through legislation or community activities. The reports from various countries pointed out that so-called welfare work is not being carried on by employers alone, but that trade unions, educational centers, factory inspectors and others in a position to reach workers are undertaking it as well.

"The congress resulted in the formation of the International Association for the Study and Improvement of Relations and Conditions in Industry. Miss K. Hesselgren, chief factory inspector of Sweden, was elected president. Headquarters will be located in Zurich, Switzerland."

THE OTHER DAY a Czech immigrant came into the office of the Foreign Language Information Service and noticing its slogan, "To Interpret America to the Immigrant and the Immigrant to America," laughed and said, "It doesn't always take many words to interpret America."

"I've been in America a long time now," he went on to explain, "but when I first came over, I knew only two English words. They were enough to carry me well beyond Chicago. On the steamer I heard them many times a day and soon caught on to their pronunciation.

"Reaching Ellis Island I was examined by an immigration officer. I asked him respectfully, 'All right?', to which he replied, 'All right.' At the barge office where some of my fellow countrymen were waiting for me, someone stepped on my foot and excused himself. 'All right,' I replied much to the wonder of my companions. At the railroad station there were many trains. I showed my ticket to one of the guards and after examining it, he pointed the direction in which I was to go. I started and looked back. 'All right,' he said.

"Finally I reached Chicago. The station was crowded and I had to wait. Leaning against the back of a baggage transfer truck I suddenly heard as the warning, 'All right?' I jumped aside, crying out, 'All right!' Two porters pushed a second truck where I had been standing.

"Whenever I found it necessary to cross the street, I waited until the policeman called 'All right,' and after many 'All rights' finally reached the home of my uncle. After supper as we were talking in my native Czech language he asked me how I enjoyed my trip. I replied 'All right,' whereupon my uncle nearly fell over in amazement. Then he slapped my shoulder and said, 'You're all right!'"

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Do Tell.

A Bit of Gossip Now and Then Is Relished by the Best of Men

In October we estimated the attendance at the next Naional Conference of Social Work as 5000. Expert Estimators have raised the figure to 6000, with the possibility that it may be even higher. The conference will be in Cleveland, May 26 to June 2. W. J. Raddatz, Cleveland Welfare Federation, Electric Building, is in charge of hotel reservations.

Governors

Old stuff—what the Governor of North Carolina said to the Governor of South Carolina. But what would the Governor of Alabama say to the Governor of Oregon? Aleta Brownlee of Portland, Oregon, writes: "I note in your 'Do Tell' that the Governor of Alabama attended a meeting of social workers. Recently the Governor of Oregon spoke to about 100 members of the Social Workers Association on 'The Responsibility of the State for Social Work.' This was not an unusual meeting, just our regular weekly luncheon, although the attendance was a little larger." Other states please copy.

* * *

And now that the competition is on, let us enter Governor Albert C. Ritchie, of Maryland, who opened the state conference with a real speech on the state's responsibility for social welfare. Not that what he said is beyond refutation. But whether or not you agreed, at least you felt that the Governor had an intelligent grasp of his subject.

Dress Reform in Philadelphia

M.C. reports this sign just outside the campus of the University of Pennsylvania:

Leave Your Suit Here
On Your Way to Class
Call for it on Your Return

* * *

Which reminds us of the Jersey barber's sign, "Haircut and shave while you wait."

* * *

Case work can't be done on union hours. That's sure. But need the case worker's day start before 6 A.M.? Miss N., who is a field secretary of the Maryland Children's Aid Society, tells of a farmer's wife 'phoning her at 4:30 A.M. "What shall I do with Johnny, Miss N.?", asked the farmer's wife. "He won't get up and milk the easy cows." Just what, by the way, is an "easy" cow?

Pennsylvania follows the lead of Ohio and Minnesota in prefacing the state conference with institutes for groups of social workers. The conference will be held in Pittsburgh, February 3 to 5. During the few days preceding there will be institutes on juvenile delinquency and on the family.

'Tis Folly to Be Wise

There was much wisdom in the program of the Maryland Conference of Social Work, and it was brightened by a good, old-fashioned Conference Follies—Follies as wittily written and as cleverly played as any we have seen at the National Conference. To us the most amusing bit was Paul Beisser, stalking down the aisles garbed as Lord Calvert, the spirit of old Maryland. Hurrah for the 100% Pennsylvania Dutch!

Meet Mrs. Cadbury

The Survey's local representative plan, suggested by Elwood Street, is being pioneered in St. Louis by Mrs. Olive McCabe Cadbury. Since she came from Tacoma and married our friend, Dick Cadbury, she has been on the staff of the St. Louis Community Council. All St. Louisans who are puzzled about Christmas gifts, should communicate with Mrs. Cadbury, 26 South Taylor Avenue, St. Louis.

E.D.K.

Berkeley Beats Scranton

The rating of cities of the United States of 50,000 population or more (1920 Federal census) with relation to the percentage of subscriptions (Survey and Survey Graphic). Figures at the right show only relative standing, and do not represent the number of subscriptions. The first column at the left shows the present rank of each city, followed by the rank two months ago (see The Survey for October 15).

Has your city climbed or fallen? Twelve cities increased their rank by more than ten places: Los Angeles, Nashville, Minneapolis, Knoxville, Chester, Long Beach, Rockford, Memphis, Springfield (Mass.), Topeka, Holyoke and Kansas City (Kan.). Three of these gains are in Tennessee. The greatest single gain was made by Springfield, Mass., which climbed 59 places.

Help your city advance ten places. The next count will be published in The Survey for February 15.

*1—2	Berkeley, Calif.	1.279	52—35	Reading, Pa.	.305
2—1	Scranton, Pa.	.971	53—67	Long Beach, Cal.	.304
3—3	Lincoln, Nebr.	.800	54—83	Rockford, Ill.	.303
4—4	Cambridge, Mass.	.736	55—34	Des Moines, Ia	.301
5—16	Los Angeles, Cal.	.652	56—39	Allentown, Pa.	.300
6—5	Harrisburg, Pa.	.645	57—47	Richmond, Va.	.300
7—9	Pittsburgh, Pa.	.544	58—49	Sioux City, Iowa	.296
8—10	Springfield, Ill.	.543	59—52	Niagara Falls, N. Y.	.294
9—6	E. Orange, N. J.	.529	60—88	Memphis, Tenn.	.278
10—13	Columbus, Ohio	.511	61—120	Springfield, Mass.	.277
11—14	Omaha, Nebr.	.500	62—40	Chattanooga, Tenn.	.276
12—8	Albany, N. Y.	.478	63—51	Milwaukee, Wis.	.273
13—15	Wilmington, Del	.454	64—57	Chicago, Ill.	.266
14—17	New Haven, Conn.	.454	65—44	Springfield, Ohio	.262
15—11	Lancaster, Pa.	.453	66—79	Topeka, Kan.	.260
16—12	Lansing, Mich.	.439	67—50	Kansas City, Mo.	.260
17—7	Hartford, Conn.	.435	68—63	Youngstown, O.	.258
18—41	Nashville, Tenn.	.424	69—72	Bridgeport, Conn.	.257
19—37	Minneapolis, Minn.	.412	70—62	Binghamton, N. Y.	.254
20—22	Washington, D. C.	.390	71—73	Duluth, Minn.	.253
21—21	Cincinnati, Ohio	.386	72—64	Tacoma, Wash.	.247
22—31	Boston, Mass.	.378	73—59	St. Louis, Mo.	.244
23—56	Louisville, Ky.	.371	74—69	Canton, Ohio.	.242
24—20	Grand Rapids Mich.	.369	75—71	Seattle, Wash.	.241
25—32	San Francisco Cal.	.364	76—60	Wilkes Barre, Pa.	.239
26—53	St. Paul, Minn.	.362	77—81	Worcester, Mass.	.233
27—45	Wichita, Kan.	.361	78—46	Oklahoma City, Okla.	.230
28—93	Troy, N. Y.	.361	79—75	Detroit, Mich.	.227
29—24	Baltimore, Md.	.361	80—77	Evansville, Ind.	.224
30—26	Dayton, O.	.360	81—70	Bethlehem, Pa.	.222
31—19	Cleveland, O.	.360	82—78	Racine, Wis.	.220
32—65	Syracuse, N. Y.	.354	83—103	Holyoke, Mass.	.216
33—74	Little Rock, Ark.	.353	84—76	Davenport, Iowa	.212
34—55	New York City	.343	85—84	Saginaw, Mich.	.210
35—38	Indianapolis, Ind.	.340	86—66	Trenton, N. J.	.210
36—48	Atlanta, Ga.	.338	87—85	Buffalo, N. Y.	.201
37—29	Schenectady, N. Y.	.337	88—80	Gary, Ind.	.200
38—25	Denver, Colo.	.336	**89—61**	**Atlantic City, N. J.**	.196
39—27	Toledo, Ohio.	.333	90—94	Spokane, Wash.	.192
40—82	Terre Haute, Ind.	.333	91—99	Jacksonville, Fla.	.185
41—18	Rochester, N. Y.	.331	92—86	Ft. Wayne, Ind.	.184
42—36	Providence, R. I.	.330	93—90	Fall River, Mass.	.183
43—23	Portland, Ore.	.329	94—92	Brockton, Mass.	.182
44—28	Johnstown, Pa.	.328	95—91	New Bedford, Mass.	.181
45—33	Philadelphia, Pa.	.322	96—89	Akron, Ohio.	.173
46—42	Wheeling, W. Va.	.321	97—96	Oakland, Calif.	.171
47—87	Knoxville, Tenn.	.320	98—95	Utica, N. Y.	.170
48—30	Yonkers, N. Y.	.320	99—107	Macon, Ga.	.169
49—58	Portland, Me.	.319	100—97	Mobile, Ala.	.164
50—43	Erie, Pa.	.311	101—98	Charleston, S. C.	.162
51—68	Chester, Pa.	.310	102—105	Huntington, W. Va.	.160
			103—54	Manchester, N. H.	.154
			104—109	Houston, Tex.	.152
			105—110	Dallas, Texas.	.144
			106—104	Waterbury, Conn.	.141
			107—106	Salt Lake City Utah	.140
			108—118	Tulsa, Okla.	.139
			109—124	Kansas City Kan.	.139
			110—113	Norfolk, Va.	.138
			111—114	Newark, N. J.	.135
			112—108	Altoona, Pa.	.133
			113—111	Savannah, Ga.	.133
			114—101	Birmingham, Ala.	.129
			115—115	Passaic, N. J.	.125
			116—117	Pawtucket, R. I.	.125
			117—100	Flint, Mich.	.119
			118—119	Paterson, N.J.	.118
			119—102	St. Joseph, Mo.	.115
			120—127	Tampa, Fla.	.115
			121—116	Elizabeth, N. J.	.114
			122—128	Haverhill, Mass.	.111
			123—126	New Orleans, La.	.104
			124—123	El Paso, Tex.	.103
			125—121	Lynn, Mass.	.099
			126—125	South Bend, Ind.	.098
			127—129	Somerville, Mass.	.096
			128—112	Lawrence, Mass.	.095
			129—122	Lowell, Mass.	.088
			130—130	Camden, N. J.	.086
			131—134	Roanoke, Va.	.078
			132—131	Jersey City, N. J.	.077
			133—132	Hoboken, N. J.	.074
			134—133	Ft. Worth, Texas	.066
			135—135	Bayonne, N. J.	.052
			136—137	San Antonio, Texas	.037
			137—136	Covington, Ky.	.017
			138—	E. St. Louis, Mo.	.008

**Figure in first column shows present rank. Figure in second (preceding name) shows rank two months ago.*

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AMERICAN BIRTH CONTROL LEAGUE—President, Margaret Sanger, 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Objects: To educate American public in the various aspects of the dangers of uncontrolled procreation; to establish centers where married persons may receive contraceptive advice from duly licensed physicians. Life membership $1.00; Birth Control Review (monthly magazine) $2.00 per year.

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION—K. L. Butterfield, president; Henry Israel, executive secretary. Room 1849, Grand Central Terminal Bldg., New York City. Emphasizes the human aspect of country life. Annual membership $5.00 includes "Rural America" (monthly bulletin) and Annual Conference Proceedings.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Lita Bane, executive secretary, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics: office of editor, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY—Founded 1828, labors for an international peace of justice. Its official organ is the Advocate of Peace, $2.00 a year. Arthur Deerin Call, secretary and editor, 612-614 Colorado Building, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Dr. George A. Soper, managing director; 370 Seventh Ave., New York. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publication free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE OF AMERICA, Inc.—730 Fifth Avenue, New York. Telephone: Circle 9623. To secure Mothers Allowance laws in states now having no such provision; to promote desirable amendments to existing Mothers Allowance laws, to harmonize them with the maximum necessary protection of dependent children; to secure proper laws affecting adoption, boarding out and placing out of dependent children; so far as possible to secure home life for normal children in preference to sending them to institutions; to aid in the enforcement of Mothers Pension and kindred laws. States Council of Child Welfare Committee of America comprises representatives of practically every state. Committee publishes digest of laws and educational material on Mothers Pension and kindred topics. Invites requests from responsible public and private organizations for aid in Mothers Pension problems. Sophie Irene Loeb, President; Governor Alfred E. Smith, Honorary Chairman; Margaret Woodrow Wilson, First Vice-President; Edward F. Brown, Executive Secretary.

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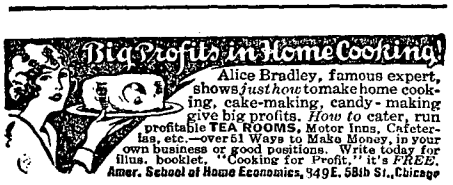
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